

The Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Secondary-School Principals

MAY -9 1951 301376 PROCEEDINGS OF THE

Thirty-fifth Annual Convention

of the

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION of SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

February 10-14, 1951

Commodore Hotel

—:—

New York City

Education for a Changing World

Part II

THE Proceedings of the 35th Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals are presented in two issues of THE BULLETIN. This issue contains some of the discussion group papers, all the papers presented at the general sessions and annual banquet, the report of the business meeting, and the financial statements of the Association.

The March, 1951, issue of THE BULLETIN contained most of the discussion group papers; thus, the complete Proceedings of the 35th Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals appear as the March and April, 1951, issues of THE BULLETIN.

VOLUME 35

APRIL, 1951

NUMBER 178

Service Organ for American Secondary Schools

THE CONTENTS OF THIS BULLETIN ARE LISTED IN "EDUCATION INDEX"

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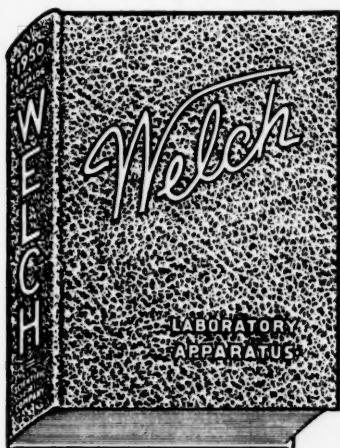
Monthly, October to May Inclusive

Published at Washington, D. C., by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Entered as second-class matter, November 8, 1938, at the post office at Washington, D. C. and additional entry at Berrien Springs, Michigan, under the Act of August 12, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage, provided for in Section 1108, Act of February 28, 1925, authorized November 8, 1938.

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The Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF Secondary-School Principals

A Department of Secondary Education of the
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
Issued Monthly, October to May Inclusive

Volume 35

April, 1951

Number 178

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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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Proceedings of the
Thirty-Fifth Annual Convention
of the
National Association of Secondary-School Principals
Hotel Commodore, New York, New York

February 10-14, 1951

Part Two

CONVENTION THEME:

EDUCATION FOR A CHANGING WORLD

DUE to the large number of participants on the program of the Convention, the Proceedings appear in two parts. This issue of THE BULLETIN is Part II. It includes the balance of the papers presented in Discussion Groups, the Proceedings of all the General Sessions, the Business Meeting, and the Annual Financial Report of the Association.

THE National Association of Secondary-School Principals is the department of secondary-school administration of the National Education Association of the United States. It is the professional organization for all who are interested and engaged in the administration of secondary education. The Association publishes THE BULLETIN and STUDENT LIFE eight times, monthly, during the school year from October to May. It conducts research studies in secondary education and has many services for members. Individual membership is five dollars per year, payable to the Executive Secretary, Paul E. Elicker, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

The following is a report of the balance of the Proceedings of the Thirty-Fifth Annual Convention held at the Hotel Commodore, New York, New York, from February 10 to 14, 1951.

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals does not necessarily endorse any individual group or organization or opinion, ideas, or judgments expressed in any of the papers encompassed in these Proceedings.

Discussion Groups - Continued

(See March, 1951 issue of the BULLETIN)

Group II—Ballroom

CHAIRMAN: *Robert G. Andree*, Headmaster Brookline High School, Brookline, Massachusetts

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Chester H. Bowen, Superintendent, Campbell County High School, Gillette, Wyoming

What Is the Principal's Responsibility for Supervision?

CARL L. AMUNDSON

IN AN unofficial count of Wisconsin's high schools, there are some sixty schools that have five teachers or less. In these schools, the principal teaches from three to five subjects in addition to his administration duties. Obviously, if he is to make reasonable preparation for his classes and handle the administrative problems that occur, he has time for little else.

What happens when we advance to the schools where the principal has all or nearly all of his time freed for administration and supervision? No one denies that much of his time must be taken with administrative duties such as co-ordinating the multifarious activities of his school, seeing that state laws and local policies are carried out, and working out a satisfactory schedule and routine for the school. But an even more important function is the task of continually trying to improve the effectiveness of his school. No institution can long be effective if the leadership is satisfied merely to make the day-to-day decisions and work out the routine problems necessary to maintain the *status quo*. The school must improve merely to maintain its present relative position, and it must improve tremendously to be the effective institution we need to maintain a free society. This, then, is the area of supervision. It is not some superior being observing and reporting. Simply said, it is what a superior official can do to help make the educational program of his high school more effective. Though it may involve observing teachers, evaluating their work, filling out check lists, writing reports, and accumulating files of information, it is these things only if they help make the high school a better institution. It may be well to note in passing, that some of these tools, as they have been

Carl L. Amundson is Principal of the Washington Park High School, Racine, Wisconsin.

used in the past, have had a negative effect on the improvement of teaching rather than a positive effect.

GROUP DYNAMICS

The basic problem in the improvement of instruction becomes an instructional problem itself. The job is to help teachers develop attitudes toward teaching which are consistent with democratic ideals, and what we know of child development. It is more than that: it is to help teachers acquire more knowledge and understanding of the learning process itself. It is to help them develop skills and knowledges that will aid them better in planning the learning activities with boys and girls, and lastly, to help them acquire techniques for teaching in light of their new ideas. This last could be easily considered the most important, for a good many improvement programs fall down in actual application. Have you ever heard a consultant when asked how to carry out an idea he has suggested, answer by saying each individual teacher will need to develop his own technique consistent with his own personality or abilities? This could be an evasion of one of the most difficult phases of improvement, finding ways of putting new theories and ideas into practice.

What are some good techniques that need exploration and try out for effectiveness in improving our program. Of course, the same things we are suggesting to teachers for use in their classroom might be effective with teachers. After all, teachers are people as are our high school and college students. I wonder if this is what Dean John Guy Fowlkes of the School of Education, the University of Wisconsin, meant when he said years ago that there was a direct three-way relationship between principal, teacher, and students; or said in another way, as a principal is to his teacher, so a teacher is to his students. Fortunately, this relationship has not been a straight line, equal qualitative relationship, for most of us can be happy over teachers who have used more effective methods with students than we have used with them.

We need to consider, then, some of the more recent developments in the area of attitude change. Perhaps, one of the most significant is in the area of group processes. Though experimentation has been going on for a good many years, and industry and other youth movements have been developing techniques to apply these principles under the heading of group dynamics, schools have been slow in developing group techniques to fit their learning situations, and probably the last to try out any group process techniques have been principals.

It seems to me significant that Alex Inkeles of the Russian Research Center at Harvard, writing in the January *Atlantic* about Russian techniques of mass communication says:

To a large extent the work of the Bolshevik Agitator, since it includes regular contact in a group setting and provides an opportunity for group discussion, however limited, creates a situation which should be conducive to effective formation of an attitude. Through its utilization of the Bolshevik Agitator, the Communist Party has capitalized on one of the most effective of all instruments of mass communications.¹

¹ Alex Inkeles. "The Russians Don't Hear." *The Atlantic*, 187:40; January, 1951.

The Russians have recognized the values of utilizing group processes, even though with their form of government, its use must have limitations. So have some psychologists and industrialists in our own country. Lewin says:²

The difficulties encountered in efforts to reduce prejudices or otherwise change the social outlook of the individual have led to a realization that re-education can not be merely a rational process. We know that lectures or other similarly abstract methods of transmitting knowledge are of little avail in changing the subsequent outlook and conduct. We might be tempted, therefore, to think that what is lacking in these methods is first hand experience. The sad truth is that even first hand experience will not necessarily produce the desired results.

To further continue Lewin's thinking:

Re-education is frequently in danger of reaching only the official system of values, the level of verbal expression and not of conduct; it may result in merely hastening the discrepancy between the superego (the way I ought to feel) and the ego (the way I really feel), and thus give the individual a bad conscience. Such a discrepancy leads to a state of high emotional tension, but seldom to correct conduct. It may postpone transgressions, but is likely to make them more violent when they occur. The observations on the relapse of alcoholics are in line with these conclusions.³

Industry has come to recognize the need for more basic changes in attitude of key personnel if company policy is to change enough to accept new methods of value to the industry. French⁴ as psychologist for the Harwood Manufacturing Company was faced with the problem of overcoming the age stereotype. Most of the plant supervisors, personnel men, and executives were imbued with the idea that people over thirty were not as efficient as those under thirty. Despite the fact that they were short-handed and had production goals to meet, their minds were closed to the idea of taking on available workers over thirty years of age. The psychologist had sufficient evidence to indicate that the supervisors were wrong on the age-old question, but understood social psychology well enough not to use the frontal attack.

His approach was to get the executives and supervisors involved in a study of the greater efficiency of the younger workers. He was careful to assume, along with the executives, that the younger workers were more efficient. French was then successful in getting the executives to include the supervisors in the study. They all became involved in setting up criteria, recording statistics, and assembling data. They assumed a proprietary air over the study, and the psychologist became only a consultant as he had planned.

The executives, of course, had to accept the findings of their own study; that workers over thirty were slightly more efficient than workers under thirty. In fact, they hailed it as a great discovery that would revolutionize the industry. The job of re-education had been completed. Their participation had

² Kurt Lewin and Paul Grabbe. "Conduct, Knowledge, and the Acceptance of New Values." *The Journal of Social Issues*, 50:56; August, 1945.

³ Kurt Lewin and Paul Grabbe, *Ibid*, p. 59.

⁴ Alfred J. Morrow and John R. P. French, Jr., "Changing a Stereotype in Industry." *The Journal of Social Issues*, 1:33-37; August, 1945.

accomplished what facts, prestige, or independent research might never have put over. French concludes with this statement:

Our experiment at the Harwood Manufacturing Company demonstrated that where as argument and persuasion had failed to uproot a strong institutional stereotype crystallized into company policy, other methods succeeded. Chief among them were participation of management in research and participation of supervisors in group discussions and decisions. Thus, through a process of guided experiences which are equally his own, a person may be re-oriented so that he gradually takes on himself the attitudes which he would not accept from others.⁵

Another famous experiment in this area of group co-operation is Lewin's⁶ experiment conducted early in the war. He was attempting to help the Food Administration to find the most effective means for getting co-operation in saving scarce foods and substituting more plentiful, but less desirable substitutes. He used persuasion and request in one group and group discussion and decision in the other. The experiment showed that people who dislike a certain food are resistant to pressure to put on them in the form of persuasion or request; but when the individual himself votes as a member of a group, after discussion to alter his food habits, his eagerness to reach the goal is independent of his likes or dislikes. In other words a person ceases to be reactive and contrary in respect to a desirable course of conduct only when he himself has had a hand in declaring that course of conduct to be desirable.

Now let's bring this to the level of a high school. I know a principal who had worked long and diligently with his faculty to arrive at a philosophy and outcomes that represented the combined thinking of his faculty. The statements were not literary gems and there were gaps that needed filling in the outcomes, but that was not his most serious problem. He recognized that this written work, though slowly and painfully worked out over the course of almost two years, was only a preliminary to the big job of applying it in his high school. The written statements were filed either in the teachers' desks or the waste baskets as soon as distributed, often to be forgotten unless some means were devised to bring action on the results.

This principal recognized that administrative orders or directives would probably be ineffective; that even a reorganization of the school and a change in the subject offering, would probably be only a superficial way of putting theory into practice. He thought that a procedure which would get all members of the faculty participating in the problem; "How do we put into practice what we have verbally affirmed is our philosophy and hoped for outcomes." To get maximum participation required small congenial groups with discussion leaders selected by the participants, if previously studied experimental evidence was to be followed.

So the faculty elected their discussion leaders and were assigned to groups on a sociometric basis. The discussion leaders had several meetings for training purposes. Role playing was utilized as a means of training them in getting maximum participation. Then the groups were left in charge of the dis-

⁵ Morrow and French. *Ibid.*, p. 37.

⁶ Gordon W. Allport. "The Psychology of Participation." *Psychological Review*, 53:123; 1945.

cussion leaders with permission to meet on school time. They were encouraged to meet every two weeks, though there was no compulsion attached to this recommendation.

It is too early to determine the outcome, for the real outcome will best be measured in the improvement of that high school in the next ten years. A subjective evaluation would indicate a slowly shifting attitude on the part of many toward change. Where the resistance to change was typical of the majority, it now represents the minority, with some quite vociferous in demanding a more rapid change in curriculum and methods. Some have recognized a need for community and student participation in considering changes to be made, if these changes are to mark progress, rather than be lost in reaction by the community because of misunderstanding.

An outcome that now seems logical, but was not anticipated in advance was a considerable increase in the amount of group work in classes. It seemed as if the experience of participating in a project as the member of a small group served as a stimulus for teachers to try more small group work within their own classes.

There are enough reports from industry, youth organizations, and various projects on group inter-relationships to indicate that some basic principles of group processes are being developed which may have considerable value in the school program both for the principal in working with his teachers as well as the teachers working with the students. To further develop its usefulness, schools must try out these principles under varying conditions, even though no striking school experiments showing measurable positive results are available.

ROLE PLAYING

Another development that seems to have some possibilities for a principal in working with his teachers is role playing. Some more formalized aspects of this technique have been dignified by the names of sociodrama and psychodrama. It is not proposed here that the principal apply these highly complicated therapeutic techniques to his faculty, but rather that simple role playing of problem situations in a school may present the problems more realistically than a mere verbal report, and may give the participants a chance to feel some of the emotional pressures involved. Mere verbalization may not give a complete and accurate emotional picture.

An illustration of this type of activity is reported by French⁷ in dealing with a scoutmaster by the name of Smith. Smith believed the real leader must be authoritative—that to get things done you must be autocratic and order people around as well as direct their every activity. In giving a leadership training course, he proved to be extremely egocentric, both as a course leader and in his more informal personal contacts. There was very little consideration of the other scoutmasters, and he spent most of the time bragging about his patrol's and troop.

⁷J. R. P. French, Jr. "Retraining An Autocratic Leader." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 39:224-237: 1947.

As might be expected the group grew more apathetic as time went on, and since it was a volunteer training course, all but two dropped before its completion. Smith was finally encouraged to take a course in group leadership himself. The trials and tribulations of trying to get him to see his own difficulties makes fascinating reading. It shows the difficulty involved in getting a person to use new leadership techniques, when autocratic methods have become part of his action pattern. The report also shows how step by step the role playing technique is used to help him see the actual pattern of his own leadership behavior, and then finally, this same role playing gives him a chance to practice a new method of leadership.

Some schools are trying this technique in their classes. Some principals are using it to help teachers work out their problems with students. A very simple place to start and an easy approach for using this technique with faculty members is to use it as a training device for faculty members who want to become more effective counselors. Most home room teachers shy away from actual counseling, except the information giving and direction giving type, because they feel they are not competent to carry on counseling sessions with their students. Even many of them who have had theoretical training and a background of reading, lack skill because they have not had the necessary practice.

One way of getting practice is by having those teachers who are interested participate in role playing sessions. One person has to agree to assume the role of some problem student who represents a problem common enough to those in attendance to have meaning, and then a second person assumes the role of counselor. It is probably best to have one of the regularly trained counselors assume this role in the beginning. A third participant may act as an observer. When the counseling session gets under way, the observer watches for opportune moments to stop the process for a discussion by the group. It is also his job to point out errors in counseling and also phases of very successful work. The group has participated vicariously, but the roles should be changed frequently so that everyone gets an opportunity to practice.

Role playing of this type should be valuable in practicing classroom procedures in improving the handling disciplinary problems, and in any other of the numerous situations involving personal relations in the school. The advantage is that in the actual situation you yourself are involved, usually too deeply to be introspective enough to study your procedure objectively. In the role playing situation you are not "playing for keeps," so that you may stop to examine and discuss procedures at any point. In other words you are practicing personal relationships, without becoming involved because of any mistakes you may be making.

TEACHER COUNSELING

Just as the student needs counseling in his school work, so the teacher may often times need the same sort of help. Though many industrial firms have established counselors for their employees, there seems to be no evidence

that any school system has taken this forward step. The classic study for industry was completed over ten years ago on the Western Electric Company's Hawthorne plant, near Chicago. It was carried on with the close co-operation of M. I. T. and Harvard.⁸ Among other things the men and women were interviewed, at first in a formal, prepared question manner, but later on, in a more non-directive manner. It was found that men were continually veering away from the prepared questions, and talking about some unanticipated problem. The interviewers soon discovered that not only were they getting information they hadn't expected, but also the releasing effect of these interviews was amazing. Men were expressing relief at getting problems "off their chest" and telling their interviewers that they were glad of an opportunity to talk over things which they would never consider taking to the front office.

This interviewing had such an astonishing effect on both the workers and supervisors that Western Electric set up a permanent system of personnel counseling. One counselor is appointed for every three hundred employees. The average interview is about eighty minutes, and is completely confidential. The company knows only what complaints are made, not who makes them. The counselor is not a part of the administrative organization and makes no recommendations on advancement or discharge of personnel.

Certainly, if the employees in an industrial plant making mechanical products, profit by having counseling service available to them, then high school teachers who are subject to the impact of all the way from one hundred to one hundred fifty personalities each day, should have access to some counselor if their problems start accumulating until they reach a point where they need the therapeutic help of talking it out with someone. Ideally this someone, as was demonstrated in the Hawthorne plant, could be independent of the administrative organization and not responsible for personnel recommendations. Since most principals do not have such help, they are faced with the problem of counseling their own faculty though the situation is not ideal. To say the principal is not qualified or his supervisory relationship makes counseling difficult and, therefore, not desirable, is avoiding the problem. Teachers need counseling more than factory employees, because of the nature of their work. Until qualified counselors are available, the principal must assume this responsibility, which is supervision of the highest order.

If the findings of the Hawthorne study, and the research of Carl Rogers⁹ is sound, then to be most effective the principal may utilize the non-direct techniques which have been developed. It is interesting to note in passing that the values of the non-directive approach in counseling were discovered in the Hawthorne plant and by Dr. Carl Rogers, each working independently, and under different conditions. Though the differences between the directive and non-directive counselors have not been resolved, it seems safe to assume that a principal may best assume the role of counselor by shedding some of his

⁸ F. J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson. *Management and the Worker*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1939.

⁹ Carl R. Rogers. *Counseling and Psychotherapy*. New York: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1942.

air of authority and direction which may be essential for the purely administrative acts.

One of the first steps in preparation for counseling others can well be a self-analysis that penetrates beneath the intellectual level. Certainly to successfully counsel others one must understand his own deepest feelings and rationalizations. "Know thyself" can well be the first tenet of a good counselor, for how can a counselor understand and help another with his problems if his own are causing too much interference to even approach understanding of others. Reik¹⁰ suggests that the first step for anyone wishing to counsel another is to become highly skilled in psychological observation of self. He suggests to his reader that the first step in attempting a self study is to become skilled in allowing free association or "stream of consciousness" ideas to be expressed in an uninhibited manner. A person may write them down as they appear or better yet, express them orally into a dictaphone or tape recorder. If this exercise is to be of value, you must allow complete uncensored expression of ideas and feelings. Even with practice there will be blockings at every turn and you will be surprised, ashamed, and sometimes even frightened by the thoughts expressed. But if you have the courage and integrity to follow through with such exercises, you may arrive at a better understanding of self, and an appreciation of the problems of others.

Would it be too much to expect a principal to be counseled himself, if such services are available, in an attempt to penetrate even further into his emotional life to a better understanding of his own drives, blocks, and frustrations? This could be more effective and carry the person further than introspection alone. It is true that the psychiatrists in many guidance clinics are already behind on their case loads, and are, therefore, reluctant to take on any more cases. But if approached with the idea that the counseling of a principal might have more far-reaching results than any other single student case, he may give more than passing consideration to the idea. I know of a school where the psychiatrist, even though he has a tremendous backlog of cases, is counseling with the principal and the five members of the counseling staff. His justification for the amount of time taken is that indirectly he is serving more students by increasing the effectiveness of members of the school staff than by giving an equal amount of time to individual students.

Then, of course, the same principle of counseling which he uses with his students are equally applicable to the teacher conference situation. Without reviewing all of the steps in the counseling process, it may be well to remember that patient listening is more important than telling; and that intellectual matters are of small concern, but it's feelings that count. We must tune ourselves to respond to feelings expressed, as Reik says, "to listen with the third ear," if we are to be effective in counseling our teachers.

SUMMARY

The suggestions made were not intended to represent a comprehensive supervisory program. Rather they are intended to point up some methods that

¹⁰ Theodore Reik. *Listening With the Third Ear*. New York. Straus, and Company, 1948.

seem to have possibilities for making the supervisory program more effective. They imply a willingness on the part of the principal himself to speculate about his own staff relationships and his entire supervisory program and to experiment with new ideas in the area of teacher-principal relationships. It is not enough to say we are too busy meeting everyday problems to take time for quiet consideration of new methods. Maybe the principal is cursed with some of the same feelings Edward Weeks, editor of the *Atlantic Monthly* mentioned in his column a few years back when he said, "Though I have spent most of my adult life earning my living by reading, I still have twinges of conscience over reading during the working day." So the principal no doubt feels he is working hardest when he is physically active about the building doing things, rather than spending some time in quiet meditation over the improvement of his school program.

But if he has reached the stage where he is willing to speculate, and better yet, try some new ideas, he may well improve his program and make a contribution to better techniques of supervision by:

1. Using a group dynamics approach in working with his faculty in areas that invoke deep seated, emotional attitudes.
2. Try out role playing for the improvement of counseling techniques, classroom methods, and the better handling of disciplinary situations.
3. Seriously consider faculty counseling as one of his more important supervisory functions.

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What Is the Principal's Responsibility for Supervision?

LESLIE W. KINDRED

THIS discussion of the principal's responsibility for supervision will deal briefly with the following points: (1) the need for supervision, (2) the meaning of supervision, (3) the supervisory functions of the principal, and (4) the limitations of these functions.

THE NEED FOR SUPERVISION¹

There is actually very little supervision done by principals in secondary schools. This is evident in the fact that few teachers have ever had the benefit of constructive supervision from the time they were first employed in a public junior or senior high school. They have been visited occasionally by the principal or the department head in a large school, especially where ratings are required under law for purposes of tenure or where advancement in salaries depends upon a satisfactory report by administrative officials. This is not supervision in the broadest sense of the word, but merely the performance of routine administrative duties.

The average principal explains his lack of supervisory activity on grounds that too many managerial tasks are piled upon his shoulders and that innumerable details that demand most of his time come over his desk. There is no doubt that the principal is burdened with a great many administrative responsibilities which leave little or no time for supervision, it is equally true that the majority of principals seem to prefer administrative work. They prefer it because the problems in administration are less difficult in many respects than those in the supervisory field. Any one who has served on committees using the *Evaluative Criteria* soon discovers that weakest spot in most schools is supervision.

The principal should not be indicated alone for this condition. His work is influenced to a large extent by the superintendent and board of education who look on supervision and supervisory personnel as expense items which can be reduced at any time without disrupting the normal operation of the school. And they have been reduced considerably in the last two decades to a point where supervision in any number of systems is merely a name to describe a field of activity that died a slow death some years ago.

The results of this policy, and other factors that could be mentioned, are found in the stagnation which characterizes instruction in many secondary schools today. On this point only, the need for supervision is great, and the principal is the key person who can within his own building do something about it. In attempting to start a supervisory program, it is basic that he shall have thought through the meaning of supervision and defined the functions he intends to perform.

¹ See BULLETIN NO. 174, the December, 1950, issue on "Supervisory Problems in the Secondary School," published by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

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WHAT IS SUPERVISION?

In schools where supervisory practices are still carried on, three different concepts of supervision seem to prevail. The first is the old threadbare concept of inspection and classroom visitation without notice in order to catch the teacher off-guard and find fault with his performance. This medieval viewpoint is more prevalent than most educators are willing to admit. It is sometimes tied in with the so-called scientific approach to supervision wherein the efficiency of teaching is judged by the test results of pupils and all sorts of rating devices are employed during the visitation period.

The second concept turns on the idea that the supervisor is the expert who knows all the answers. It is his job to analyze the strengths and weaknesses of the teacher and to point out how improvements can be made. He usually sits in classrooms most of the day and then attempts through conferences and follow-ups to note what improvements are made in the methods and techniques of the teacher. This concept has been strongly associated with the presence of special subject supervisors working with teachers throughout a system in their particular fields of interest. In a few instances the department head defines his responsibilities along these lines, though usually he is content with ordering supplies and checking the distribution of marks at stated intervals throughout the year.

The third concept is that of looking at supervision as co-operative enterprise involving administrators and teachers who concern themselves with the identifying and solving of all problems related to teaching and learning. In this concept, emphasis is placed upon the democratic way of life and skill in the use of techniques for finding sound answers to significant problems. It is with this concept in mind that the functions of the principal as a supervisor will be described.

THE FUNCTIONS OF THE SUPERVISOR

There are five main functions of the principal as a supervisor. These functions are leadership, co-ordination, personnel, research, and public relations.

Leadership

The leadership function is not new. It has always been identified with the head of the school. But the interpretation of this function is different. The principal is no longer regarded as the top man who gives the orders and sees that others carry them out. He is now the leader of a mature group of individuals who have a strong stake in the decisions that are made and, because of this fact, have a voice in deciding what courses of action they shall follow. This is possible because he has slowly developed among the staff a sense of unity and an appreciation of the values connected with the group approach to the solution of common problems. In moving in this direction, his first big job was that of winning the confidence of the staff and getting them to accept him as a member. Once this was accomplished, he was then in a position to offer suggestions, release authority, and create opportunities

for staff members to assume leadership. This is leadership as he conceives it in a school that operates democratically.

Co-ordination

The function of co-ordination is closely related to that of leadership. It involves setting up organizational machinery which enables the staff to think and plan together. In a well-co-ordinated program, each person knows his relationship to the total undertaking and clearly understands the responsibilities which have been assigned to him by the group. In performing these responsibilities, he feels an obligation to the group and assurance that the principal is willing and ready to render assistance on call. The principal also makes it a point to invite parents and representative members of the community to take part in the planning that is done by the members of the staff. He realizes that through their participation they gain important knowledge about the school and its personnel and also make many valuable contributions to the thinking of the group. When decisions are reached, he makes every effort to facilitate their application and to publicly acknowledge the services of all who are responsible for them.

Human Relations

The function of human relations is perhaps the most important of all. It concerns the task of seeing that members of the staff derive real satisfactions from their jobs. Toward this end, the principal sets the tone of the school and demonstrates in his relations what is meant by human understanding and respect for personality. This means that he takes a vital interest in the personal and professional problems of teachers; that he has faith in their ability; that he recognizes their contributions; that he invites their opinions and takes them into confidence on all matters of importance to the school; that he stands back of their actions; and, that he helps them to maintain their self-respect. He knows that good working conditions are essential to a proper attitude on the job and that teachers must have adequate supplies and equipment for efficient instruction. He works with them on questions of salary and load and tries to place them in situations that are stimulating and challenging. He is instrumental in establishing legal channels through which they may express their dissatisfactions and sees that the reasons are published when certain complaints cannot be cared for at the time. In brief, he tries to bring about in teachers a deep sense of satisfaction in their work and a feeling of pride in being associated with the school.

Research

The research function cannot be disassociated from the group approach to the solution of problems related to teaching and learning. It is essential to this concept of supervision simply because it represents a procedure that must be employed in reaching sound decisions. Unfortunately, few teachers have had research experience and are somewhat apprehensive about undertaking research projects. This need not be a serious limitation if the principal recognizes the need for gradually introducing the research approach and lending constructive help during the initial stages of its development.

In the hands of a competent leader, the average teacher can soon acquire sufficient skill to engage successfully in various types of research. Certainly there is a fertile field of opportunity for undertaking research in practically every secondary school today.

Public Relations

The last supervisory function of the principal is that of public relations. There is scarcely a principal who does not realize that progress in secondary education cannot be made unless the community is taken into the full confidence of the school. Any effort to undertake instructional improvements that are not understood and supported by the citizens and taxpayers of the community inevitably leads to trouble. This is in keeping with the principle that the school must function in accordance with majority opinion, and that opinion for the most part is rather conservative. Accordingly, steps must be taken to keep the public fully informed with regard to the purposes, program, and problems of school. Given public confidence in the value of instructional improvement, teachers will feel an even stronger incentive for undertaking the important role they have been assigned.

LIMITATIONS

There are several limitations that stand in the way of implementing fully the functions which have been described. For one thing, many administrators and teachers have not yet reached the point of being willing to accept the group method of solving problems. They find it easier to go along with the authoritarian pattern and give orders or take orders as the case may be. Second, professional personnel are at present carrying loads that are excessive. There is little point in trying to add more and expect individuals to maintain a healthy frame of mind toward their jobs. Definite provisions must be made to relieve staff members of less essential tasks and to substitute the time that is needed for dealing with problems of teaching and learning. Third, many teachers are reluctant to accept the responsibility that goes along with the concept of shared authority, and many principals are reluctant to share their authority and lose some of the power they now enjoy. Fourth, the group approach to problems takes considerable time to achieve efficiently, with the result that some teachers and administrators lose patience with this method of working and prefer a faster pattern of action. They do not realize that learning is a slow process at the adult level as well as the child level. Action, however, can be taken when decisions are reached, and it is wise in the introduction of the method to see that problems are dealt with which can be solved within short periods of time. Finally, there must be faith in the ability of the staff—a faith that is based upon a respect for the competency of other persons. If such faith is present in the relations of administration and staff, teachers will not feel insecure, discontent, and suspicious as they do now in too many secondary schools.

Group III—Ballroom

CHAIRMAN: *Frank Misner*, Principal, Bronxville Senior High School, Bronxville, New York

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

Marion D. Jewell, Principal, Julia Richman High School, New York, New York

R. R. Lewis, Principal, Deming High School, Deming, New Mexico

Promising Administrative Practices in Senior High Schools

JAMES BROCKMAN

Educational Tours for Seniors

BY senior tour we mean the one day or two week tour that the senior class makes at the end of its senior year in high school. Many schools in Missouri have been taking senior tours with the location, size, and financial condition of the school and community determining the type of tour. For the past ten years the Festus High School has been taking a senior tour into the deep South, and we sincerely believe that this type of tour is invaluable to our students and community. My job here today is not to try and sell you on the idea of a senior tour but to pass along a few ideas that you may be able to use.

One of the first questions usually asked when discussing a senior tour is "How do you finance a trip of this kind?" The financing of the program is very important to the year-in and year-out success of the tour, so I would like to pass along to you a plan that we have been using with great success.

Every student in Festus High School pays trip dues to his class treasurer at the rate of twenty-five cents a week. This plan is carried through all four grades in high school, which makes a total of thirty-six dollars credited to each student as he finishes his senior year.

We have no laws or rules which forces the student to pay his trip dues each month, but at the end of his senior year his trip dues must be paid in order to make the tour. We also make it possible for a student to withdraw when necessary all money placed in the trip fund to his credit.

The people of the community help make this plan work by calling the high school office and requesting student help with the many little odd jobs found around a business and the home. These odd jobs are given the students that have indicated their desire to work. Both boys and girls have equal opportunity, and all students in the class, rich or poor, have an opportunity to pay their trip dues.

The usual sources of income obtained from special money-making enterprises, such as the annual school carnival, senior play, sale of Christmas cards, etc., are used to supplement our trip dues plan.

The success of any tour depends upon definite planning and preparation. For several years we have used the services of a tour company in St. Louis. This plan has worked out very satisfactorily. This company arranges for all

James Brockman is Principal of the Festus High School, Festus, Missouri.

transportation, meals, hotels, and special sight seeing trips. Our big job is to anticipate the problems and prepare the student to meet them.

Last year we made an all-expense-paid tour to New Orleans and the Gulf Coast. On this tour were eighty-one seniors out of a class of eighty-four, two class sponsors and the wife of one of the other sponsors, three mothers, one school board member, the superintendent and principal, making a total of ninety on the tour. We left on a Sunday morning and returned late in the afternoon on the following Sunday. The eighty-one seniors and nine sponsors were taken care of for eight days without any major difficulties or delays. Our tour company did an excellent job and our students gave us one hundred per cent co-operation throughout the tour.

For ninety people the total cost per person was \$65.85. This included the round trip railroad fare from Festus (two special streamlined cars), all meals for the entire tour, hotel rooms in Biloxi and New Orleans, dinner at LaLouisiana—a famous French restaurant, admissions to the Jefferson Davis home, an ocean cruise to Ship Island in the Gulf of Mexico, two guided Gray Line tours including such places of interest as: New Orleans French Quarter and the modern New Orleans, an afternoon visit to Lake Pontchartrain, a night harbor boat trip with dancing, all transfers between stations and hotels, all sales tax, and the services of a trained tour director throughout the trip.

We try to impress upon our seniors the purpose and responsibilities of the senior tour. On several occasions we took our tour before graduation; the past four years the tour has been after graduation and I am happy to report that we have had no major discipline problems while on tour. We believe that with proper preparation you can handle large groups of senior students after graduation as well as before graduation.

We approach our seniors by impressing upon them the fact that they are graduates of Festus High School and that the senior tour is a final testing ground to see if they are ready to take their places in everyday society. We try to make them realize that they are young men and women ready to step into responsible jobs and become a part of the community. The only hold we have over our seniors on the tour is the knowledge that their high school has trained them for four years, and in four years if we are unable to make young men and women realize their responsibilities to their school, community and schoolmates, we have failed as teachers and administrators. Our boys and girls know what the school expects from them, they know that the way they act and behave will affect following groups. Each student tries to prove to you that he is able to do his part to make the trip a success.

We have very few rules and regulations, but we do have a very definite group of suggestions that we discuss with our seniors before the tour gets under way. I would like to pass along a few of the problems and suggestions to you.

1. The few rules and regulations that we have are for the benefit of the entire tour group. You are expected to do your part in making this tour successful by following all rules and regulations.

2. A reasonable hour will be set each night for the student to be in his or her room. It will vary according to circumstances and the program for the following day. There are other guests in the hotel and the actions and manners of the students must not disturb them at any time.
 3. No drinking of alcoholic beverages of any kind while on tour.
 4. Smoking:
 - a. No smoking on the train at any time except in the rest rooms (Health and sanitation problems)
 - b. No smoking in the buses at any time.
 5. We trust you as young men and women but you are the responsibility of the school and its sponsors on this trip. For your protection and also for the protection of the sponsors it will be necessary to check your rooms each night and sometimes during the day as we see fit to do so.
 6. In the past several types of card and table games have been played during the tour. Games are permissible as long as they are not played for money.
 7. This next rule is very important and we are asking you to give your full cooperation. You are going into strange communities and there will be times when you will have free time to do as you please; during these times for your own welfare we are asking you to go in groups of four or more.
 8. Never leave the hotel grounds without telling a sponsor where you are going and who is going with you. It is our duty to keep in touch with you at all times.
 9. We want you to be friendly with everyone, but we do not want any association with strangers. We are responsible to your parents for your safety and well being.
 10. No dates while on the trip, except with members of our own group (must go in groups of four or more).
 11. Please co-operate by doing as the majority wish.
 12. Everyone carries his or her own luggage.
 13. Give each student an idea of the proper clothing to take on the tour (sport clothes, dress-up clothes, bathing suits, etc.) The tendency is to take more clothing than necessary.
 14. Everyone will be expected to dress appropriately for dinner at the hotel.
 15. Ash trays, towels, bath mats, etc., belong to the hotel and when we check out we expect everything to be in place and accounted for. If you would like to have a big bath towel with the hotel name on it for a souvenir, you can purchase it from the desk clerk for cost.
 16. The sun along the gulf coast is extremely hot and will cause sunburn much faster than in Missouri. We suggest that you take along sun tan oil and use it freely while out in the sun. A bad case of sunburn is dangerous and will ruin your trip.
 17. Many rings have been lost while swimming, so take care of any jewelry you might have.
 18. No visiting in rooms in the hotel unless you have a sponsor's consent. Meet your friends in the hotel lobby or recreation room.
 19. Through an agreement with the hotel management, and due to the fact that previous seniors from our school have conducted themselves as young men and women, we have been given the right to attend the night club located in the hotel. (No alcoholic beverages will be served our group.) You will be expected to dress properly. Excellent food, cokes, and lemonade may be purchased as desired. You will be expected to go in groups of four or more.
 21. The tour company will have a guide with us on the entire tour. You are expected to treat him with respect and be prompt and courteous at all times.
- This is not a complete list; you can think of many things that can be added and should be discussed with your seniors before starting on your tour.

If you are to receive this one hundred per cent co-operation from your students, it is necessary to have the help and co-operation of all the senior parents. We try to achieve this part of our program by: (1) holding a group meeting of all senior parents about a month before the tour starts. Explain to the parents the things you expect from the seniors. Give the parents a chance to ask questions about the tour. Ask the parents to help prepare their boy or girl for the tour. (2) Two weeks before the tour send a letter to the parents asking for their co-operation, by listing the more important rules and suggestions and asking the parents to go over these rules and suggestions with their child. (3) We have received some very nice compliments from the tour company, restaurants, hotels, *etc.*, which we pass along to the seniors and their parents. This makes the parent and student realize that they have made their tour a success.

We have never had a student let us down on one of our educational tours. We are proud and the community is proud of its young men and women.

Promising Administrative Practices in Senior High Schools

HERBERT H. HELBLE

Supervision of Audio-Visual Aids

THE challenge facing the secondary-school principal is a large one. Supervision, preferably called co-ordination, of all school activities both class and extraclass, is only one of his many responsibilities. In only a minority of secondary schools do special personnel assist him in this responsibility of co-ordination. Regardless of who co-ordinates, service to teachers and pupil is the modern and accepted purpose of supervision. "The aim of supervision is the improvement of the total teaching-learning process."¹

In the amazing and rapidly-developing field of audio-visual aids, few secondary-school principals have competence or time to direct or co-ordinate. Many, however, are learning much of the necessary know-how. As in the fields of athletic and nonathletic extraclass activities, library, guidance, and health services, the resourceful principal finds it necessary to select and help develop personnel on his staff to assist him in supervising audio-visual aids to learning.² By delegating the detailed supervision of such activities, even on a part-time basis or as an extraclass assignment to a qualified staff member, the principal still retains centralization of authority though he delegates the execution of authority to someone else.³

In supervising audio-visual aids as in other aspects of his administration, "as is the principal, so is the school." If the principal rejects or accepts with

¹ Fielstra, Clarence. "Supervisory Problems of the Secondary-School Principal," BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Dec., 1950, Page 12.

² *Ibid.* Page 17.

³ Tompkins, Ellsworth. *Extra-Class Activities for All Pupils*, Federal Security Administration, Office of Education, Nov., 1950, Page 18.

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lukewarmness the tools of audio-visual instruction, his school will react with indifference.

Psychologically, audio-visual aids emphasize the importance of concrete experience in the learning process; much other instruction stresses the value of verbal or symbolic experience.⁴ Both types of instruction have value. One complements the other.

If the principal accepts this philosophy he will welcome and find many ways to utilize such aids in his school. First, and most important of all, therefore, the principal's attitude towards the introduction, expansion, and critically evaluative use of audio-visual materials needs to be sympathetic and co-operative.

Secondly, as in all good democratic situations and because of the compelling demands on his energies and time, the principal's leadership needs to be supplemented by co-operative discussion and planning with his staff.⁵ His strength is multiplied many times if he has learned know-how in ways of working with people. He familiarizes himself with the dynamics of group processes. Many such administrators are learning how to capture and harness the latent, undiscovered, and undeveloped resources and talents of their personnel because of this leadership trait. Administrators do not delegate enough. They tend to delegate responsibility without delegating adequate and commensurate authority. Periodic discussions with demonstrations of these aids to his staff and co-ordinator of audio-visual aids—if he has one—and delegation of responsibility with commensurate authority are, therefore, needed for a planned and successful program.⁶

At Appleton High School, each spring each department plans its use of audio-visual materials for the coming year. Co-ordinator and principal join in this planning so that all may know budget, equipment, and time limitations; mediocre or undesirable films, strips, slides, and recordings are eliminated; new materials available are announced; and teaching aids, pre-viewing, and evaluation techniques improved. The principal's cabinet, an advisory council consisting of eleven department heads, the librarian, dean of girls, and assistant principal discuss, conclude and act upon these conclusions in this aspect, as well as other aspects, of school administration.

Third, having accepted audio-visual aids as a desirable learning experience, the principal needs to influence his teachers to come to the same conclusion. His philosophy needs to become theirs.

Distribution and discussion of *The Cone of Experience*, a graphic pyramid presentation of the learning efficiency of various learning experiences, may open the eyes of the doubters.⁷ He should not overlook the golden opportunity of inducting teachers new to his school in this philosophy, teachers

⁴ McCluskey, E. Dean. *The Principal and Audio-Visual Education*, Dept. of Elementary School Principals, N.E.A., 1947-48, Page 7.

⁵ Debernadis, Amo. *Ibid.*, Page 17.

⁶ Helble, H. H. "In-Service Education of Teachers," *American Schoolboard Journal*, Sept., 1944, Page 35.

⁷ Dale, Edgar. *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching*, Dryden Press, 1947, Pages 37 ff.

whose own philosophy has often not yet crystallized. Unless the actual use, implementation, administration, and evaluation of these aids are acceptable to the teacher, little solid progress will result. Kinder has an excellent chapter entitled "The Role of the Teacher in Perceptual Learning" that is convincing.^{*} His office bulletins can carry frequent messages on the art of display—the use and abuse of bulletin boards, how to use blackboards, the construction of maps, models, charts, graphs, and posters, and what services are available in the school museum.

He attends himself and encourages his teachers to attend (by helping to arrange, publicizing, and securing transportation and meals) various workshops held in the area and summer and extension courses devoted to audio-visual learning. For his library, the principal secures a steady stream of books (such as James Kinder's *Audio-Visual Materials and Techniques* and Edgar Dale's *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching*), catalogs (such as *Educators' Guide to Free Films and Educational Film Guide*), and periodicals (such as *Educational Screen, Film and Radio Guide, See and Hear*, and *Opaque Projection*). He can ask his librarian to route them to interested school personnel.

Consulting with his librarian and co-ordinator of audio-visual aids (if he has one) he plans a central library for these aids, their purchasing and rental through one agency, accessioning, distribution to and use by the staff, maintenance, etc. With one eye on the future and the virtual certainty that this aspect of his administrative responsibilities will grow, he blueprints ideas into plans for future expansion of an audio-visual center somewhere in the vicinity of the library, perhaps, including plans for storage space, possible television and broadcasting facilities, previewing and listening rooms, dark shades and drapes, developing room, acoustical walls and ceilings, electric outlets, and a laboratory workshop for constructing, repairing, displaying, and demonstrating equipment and materials.

Disc, tape and wire recorders can be made available and student members of the Audio-Visual Aids Club instructed in recording significant and worthwhile radio programs. By recording the school operetta, Christmas musicale and caroling, significant forensic and athletic presentations, "Cavalcade of America," "Town Meeting of the Air," and other events of general or particular interest, they are thus "canned" for future school and community use. The latter suggestion could be expanded indefinitely for the benefit of invalids, shut-ins, and the hospitalized, students and adults alike. These are but several of the many varied and delightfully flexible uses to which these modern devices may be put by schools.

The co-ordinator and students in our school demonstrate and practice such techniques as part of our annual pre-school, in-service orientation week for teachers. Throughout the year they also demonstrate teaching films and equipment, arrange previews, record programs within and without the school, give instruction to teachers in the use of equipment, route films and recordings, filmstrips, slides, and requisition blanks for services and facilities, handle

^{*} Kinder, James. *Audio-Visual Materials and Techniques*, American Book Company, 1950. Pages 43 ff.

administrative problems of packing, mailing, and delivery, synchronize the use of equipment and facilities through the use of a large booking calendar, project contemplated expansions and improvements of the technical aspects of our program, and distribute and collect evaluation forms each time a particular visual aid is used by a teacher.

Some of these instructions are repeated for teachers in the spring before school closes for the summer. The principal who employs these or similar methods will find them valuable to his in-service training program.

In our school, each department is responsible for filling four large display cases in the main lobby for two weeks of the school year. Each teacher is also encouraged and aided in providing noteworthy and attractive blackboards, bulletin boards, and departmental displays throughout the year, but more especially during National Education Week, Go-To-School Night, patriotic and religious holidays, and to emphasize current affairs. A constantly increasing use of such aids, and a noticeable improvement in the quality of displays presented, is encouraging evidence that more and more of our teachers have accepted the philosophy of audio-visual aids as a significant tool to complement their teaching. They have learned that these audio-visual devices and teaching aids are making their work more effective and pleasant.

Fourth, what effect has the principal's philosophy of audio-visual aids on his pupils? High-school boys and girls are eager to engage in concrete, adult, outside-of-school activities and experiences. Real life-like experiences supply motivated interest which in turn generates participative effort. Through the Audio-Visual Aids Club, we have forty keenly interested pupils active each year and trained to operate machines effectively, repair, service, transport, and demonstrate throughout the school day and evenings. They keep their appointments on time and learn to plan ahead.

Some of the services they render to teachers and fellow students have been mentioned. Some of these boys soon develop finesse and diplomacy and the art of "selling" their wares and themselves, as they serve and work with doubting, hesitant, and hold-back members of the staff. Their counsel is often invaluable to the principal who seeks honest-to-goodness student opinion and reactions to the program, as they carry on their duties throughout the school and get into classrooms more often than he does. These students spark an interest in these media of instruction throughout the entire school.

The principal who cheerfully welcomes these teaching aids will find many additional uses for his school's radio, public address, or intercommunicating systems. He will encourage his Radio Workshop, the forensic, drama, music, and journalism groups to make increased use of these facilities. They broadcast announcements, write and present radio scripts, give plays, musical numbers, current affairs, school and other news if he extends the use of the broadcasting facilities in his sanctum, or wherever else they may be located. He may be temporarily inconvenienced thereby if the former is true, but such use of his office may be one of the few occasions when he gets students into his office in a pleasant emotional climate.

If the school system has its own or uses the facilities of a privately-owned radio station, the alert and sympathetic principal will miss no opportunity to encourage and assist his school personnel in the frequent use of such excellent public relations ventures. Our weekly school newspaper staff broadcasts student news in this way, especially to bridge the gap between issues or after vacation periods before publication of the paper is resumed.

In conclusion, this concept of the role of the secondary-school principal makes his job one that is dynamic, challenging, and ever-changing. Newer philosophies of education can be achieved if the principal rises to the occasion. Newer teaching aids in abundance and the necessary techniques of instruction in their effective and valuable use are at his hand. Some of the most outstanding of these are in the audio-visual fields.

If the principal can keep his educational and mental concrete from setting and becoming hard, he can as supervisor or co-ordinator of audio-visual aids exercise and develop one more facet of his many-sided educational leadership.

Promising Administrative Practices in Senior High Schools

A. JOHN WALDMANN

Class Scheduling

DUE to large enrollments and traditional scheduling practices in the high schools in our district, we have for a long time been concerned with a situation which we felt has been a definite hindrance in our efforts to develop better classroom learning atmosphere. The situation of which I speak is that which not only has to do with large numbers of boys and girls, but also that which has made little or no provisions for given groups of pupils to be together in more than one classroom situation. This condition has made it necessary for an individual pupil to make many different pupil and teacher contacts during the school day. Under these circumstances, it is quite impossible for a pupil to become well acquainted with many other pupils, or for pupils to become well acquainted with his teachers, or teachers with pupils. This resulting classroom atmosphere, we feel, seriously limits the desirable interaction found in a social group.

After studying the aforementioned problem at length, we conceived our idea which we call "block scheduling." By this is meant the placing of a given group of pupils as a unit in as many classes as is possible. In carrying this one step further, in cases where teachers may be teaching two different subjects on this same grade level, an attempt is made to schedule a block of pupils with the same teacher in more than one situation. This decreases not only the number of necessary pupil-pupil contacts, but also the number of pupil-teacher contacts. In other words, we hope that we are retaining some of

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the characteristics of the small school in which most of the pupils knew each other well and teachers became well acquainted with all his pupils.

In our high schools, English is a course which is required of all pupils in each grade. Though mathematics is not required of all ninth-grade pupils, nearly 100 per cent of this group take algebra or general mathematics. On the tenth-grade level, about the same percentage of students takes biology or another science. All eleventh-grade pupils take American history and government. Nearly 100 per cent of the seniors take senior problems. We, therefore, place almost 100 per cent of all pupils in blocks in at least two subjects. We continue this block scheduling in as many other subjects as is possible. In many cases, a group of thirty to thirty-five pupils will be together in as many as three or four subjects. The following are some examples: In the ninth grade, blocks of pupils in English I, mathematics I, social studies, and Spanish I; In the tenth grade, blocks of pupils in English II, biology, world culture, Spanish II, *etc.* The blocking might be one of several possible subject combinations.

We have discovered that this system of block scheduling tends to bring together, in each block, many pupils who have common interests. This, we believe, also has merit as class activities may be developed to take into consideration of these common interests.

In that our English teachers are responsible for the group guidance program, we have designated them as the "leader" teachers in this block organization. We also have class counselors who begin with a class and remain with a class until it has been graduated. The class counselor, therefore, works very closely with the English teachers. Regularly, the English teachers call together the other block teachers with the class counselor sitting in as a consultant to discuss common problems of the group. The counseling office and all teachers, through specially established procedures, constantly interchange information about individual pupils.

The class counselors begin programming pupils for the next school year immediately after the close of the first semester. By the second week of April all programming is finished. Immediately thereafter, the class counselors and director of guidance begin "blocking" the pupils in classes. By the close of the school semester, this has been completed and the master chart has been drawn up for the new school year.

In the planning of the two new high schools which are to open next year, consideration has been given to more extensive use of block scheduling. We plan to divide the student bodies into two equal blocks, each block operating separately on the campus and the placement of buildings has been established to fit in with this plan. To explain further, our "general use" facilities such as social studies, mathematics and English classrooms are placed at two outer extremities of the campus. The "central use" facilities such as gymnasium, auditorium, cafeteria, library, and certain others such as physics, chemistry, shop, homemaking labs, music rooms, *etc.*, are placed in the center of the campus. In this arrangement, the two campus groups will share the "central

use" facilities, but will use exclusively the "general use" facilities. By further reducing the number of pupil-pupil contacts in this manner and also by the use of the class blocking system, we think we will be able to obtain many of the features of two small schools on a single campus.

Promising Administrative Practices in Senior High Schools

CLARENCE J. WHITNEY

The Student Exchange Program

A PROGRAM of student exchange was initiated in Wyandotte in the year of 1945-46 and has been repeated yearly since that time. The Junior Red Cross suggested such a program and offered to act as a contact agent in attempting to make arrangements with other schools. It also offered to act as a contact agency in making arrangements for interviews and excursions throughout the Detroit metropolitan area. With their co-operation, arrangements were made for an exchange visit with Montreal. University High School of Chicago, Illinois, Radnor High School of Wayne, Pennsylvania, Newton High School of Newton, Massachusetts, and Denfield High School of Duluth, Minnesota, have been visited in succeeding years. Frederick High School of Frederick, Maryland, will be visited this year. The project was formulated with four main objectives as follows:

1. To broaden vocational horizons—This was to be accomplished through directed investigation in fields of the student's interest by affording opportunities to take self-appraisal tests, interest inventories, and by visiting industries and leaders in the chosen fields. This objective has perhaps been relegated to a secondary position by the development of an effective high-school counseling system.
2. To expand the social, political, and economic outlook of the students—Means to this end consisted of (1) an intensive study of our own community, its people, industries, institutions, and governmental organization, (2) a study of the midwest area from the standpoint of its geologic, economic, social, and civic development, and (3) a study from a similar viewpoint of that area of the country to be visited.
3. To offer a realistic approach to intercultural understanding—Projects to this end consisted of a study of religious, economic, and cultural backgrounds of (1) class members, (2) community areas and groupings including those of metropolitan Detroit, and (3) visitation to a community of different traditions and culture.
4. To offer practice in those cultural habits and customs which contribute greatly to personal confidence in meeting the problems of every-day living such as introductions, duties as a host, hostess, guest, dress, make-up, travel etiquette, *etc.*

It was felt that such objectives could be best served by organizing a class upon that basis. Accordingly, for the past six years we have offered a one unit elective course in social studies culminating in an exchange visit of ap-

Clarence J. Whitney is Principal of the Theodore Roosevelt High School, Wyandotte, Michigan.

proximately a week in length with a similar group from some other school. Each student stays in the home of the student who has been his or her pen pal.

Although the class is elective, each student must meet three conditions to be able to participate:

1. He must be able and willing to earn approximately fifty dollars to contribute to his personal expenses.
2. He must maintain a scholastic record that justifies frequent and relatively extended absence from other classes.
3. He must be emotionally stable and a good school citizen.

Applications are processed by a faculty committee of five teachers who also serve as a resource board throughout the year. Since applications always exceed the number that can be accommodated, an attempt is made to see that the final composition of the class represents the different religious, economic, and nationality groups of the community and that it is evenly divided between boys and girls.

The class has no prescribed course of study but attempts to attain the general objectives of the course through democratic organization. The first class chose as its name, "The World as a Community;" and although this has been generally shortened to "Waac" by succeeding groups, the general objectives have remained relatively unaltered. The class has rotating officers with the exception of the class banker who is elected for the year.

The class reads extensively in connection with its projects, has many guest speakers from the community, and takes many field trips. Its members participate widely in school activities, community panels, radio discussions, and similar projects.

Throughout the year there is continuous correspondence between the individuals of the exchange groups and an exchange of materials between the groups.

The trip is entirely self financing. Contributions are not acceptable. Each individual earns fifty dollars, and the remaining thousand to twelve hundred dollars are made through group projects. Individual earnings are deposited with the class banker, and each student has his individual bank book. These earnings together with those from group action are deposited in the school internal accounting system. Economic background does not seem to have been an insurmountable barrier to participation. The work is definitely keyed to the more able group of students, but in today's high school this is the group that is most frequently neglected.

In conclusion I would like to say that the outcomes are not directly subject to appraisal. Individual and group growth has taken so many paths that it is impossible to note them. Given the proper leadership, and I believe this is the most important single item, the outcomes exceed your fondest expectations. The project has sold itself to the school, to the board of education, and to the community. I hope the practice may be indefinitely extended.

Group IV—Parlor A

CHAIRMAN: *George D. Lange*, Principal, Derry Township High School, Hershey, Pennsylvania

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

Mrs. Edna W. Payton, Principal, Francis Junior High School, Washington, D. C.

C. A. Carson, Assistant Superintendent for Secondary Education, Tucson, Arizona

What Provisions for the Education of Gifted Students?*

MORRIS MEISTER

THE democratic right to attend high school has come to mean for most youth, the right to study the same subjects, in the same way, at the same rate, for the same length of time and subject to what are believed to be the same standards. The trouble is that half of our youth cannot stand the process, and drop out before graduation. The pity is that half of the drop-outs could have completed the course, such as it is. Now, we must not be indifferent to the needs which all youth share in common; but it is not inherent in democracy that it emphasize a leveling process. Our schools must become safe for differences.

HOW MANY IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS ARE GIFTED?

Although there is no general agreement on the answer to this question, it is essential to deal with it realistically. Let us, then, accept the rough line of demarcation proposed by the Educational Policies Commission; namely that ten per cent of the six million boys and girls in American high schools have IQ's better than 120 and that, therefore, 600,000 of them are either "moderately" or "highly" gifted. Twenty-five years from now, a very large proportion of this group will be running the country; its business, its politics, its law, its professions, its arts, its science. Even if we disagree violently with using the intelligence quotient as a criterion, and even if the 600,000 include some who should not be there or exclude some who should be there, a major fraction of them is certainly destined for leadership.

HOW LARGE ARE THE HIGH SCHOOLS WHICH THEY ATTEND?

Of the 600,000 gifted students, as here defined, 200,000 live in cities with populations of 100,000 and over. Such communities can afford to maintain perhaps four or five different high-school structures, each accommodating at least 500 students. Another 100,000 of the gifted boys and girls live in areas where consolidation of resources are possible; so that again, several high schools of reasonable size can be organized. In other words, about half of the gifted children attend high schools of 500 or more students and live in areas where several high schools are reasonably available. The re-

* This paper includes excerpts from Chapter X, written by Dr. Meister, in a recently published book, *The Gifted Child*, edited by Paul Witty, D. C. Heath & Co.

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maining half, or 300,000 gifted boys and girls, live in such small communities where the high-school population numbers less than 500, or if it is larger, only one school is reasonably available in the region.

These rough estimates are of prime importance. Cost of instruction, variety of teacher talent, flexibility of program, and many other factors which determine provisions for individual needs, all depend upon the size of school unit. It is safe to say that even with twice the amount of money now in sight for high-school support, no school unit of less than 500 students can offer the enriched and flexible program required by the varying interests and abilities of its students, not to mention the special enrichments called for to meet the needs of the fifty moderately and highly gifted boys and girls in every such school.

From a practical point of view, therefore, there is little to be gained for the larger school from a consideration of what is best to do for the gifted in the very small school. Such schools are equally handicapped in caring for the entire range of abilities, and represent a problem so different in degree as to constitute a problem different in kind. Two tracks of study, research and teacher training must therefore be launched. While the findings in each of the tracks will have bearing on the other, each must proceed independently and in its own frame of reference. The important fact to note is that each of the tracks concerns itself and will continue to concern itself for the next twenty years or more with half of the 600,000 gifted high-school boys and girls in America.

WHAT OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE GIFTED IN THE LARGER SCHOOL?

At the high-school level variability in achievement probably reaches its maximum. The teacher meets about 150 or more students each day. It often takes a month before he can call each of them by name. Associating different sets of abilities and interests with these names is another time-consuming task. Yet, in the class assembled at random, we expect the teacher to organize smaller groups for learning purposes. There may be need for as many as four or five such groups. Not only interest and ability, but also subject status is important. Reading comprehension also plays a part. Assignments must be varied. As many as five or six committees must be kept going. Students are transferred in or out. Such groupings may be continued for a long time; others for only a day or two. Different texts, tests, and supplementary materials must be procured, assembled, and otherwise made available to each of the groups. He must meet parents and become familiar with home conditions. Truly, the teacher of a heterogeneous class must be Superman himself!

If society could afford a teacher for each student, the problem of caring for individual needs would be largely solved. Since that is impossible, we must perforce develop procedures for dealing with groups, large groups most of the time, small groups some of the time, and with individuals occasionally. Since the larger school makes grouping more feasible, the development of procedures for varying groups becomes more attainable.

SOME DEVICES PROPOSED AND TRIED

During the past twelve years the New York City high schools have experimented with at least three grouping devices for dealing with gifted children. Each of the devices has its devotees and its critics. The first is the organization of so-called Honor Classes in the various subject areas. Thus, Honor Classes in English, history, mathematics, language, and science are formed at each grade level. The basis for admission is usually a high grade in the previous semester's work in the particular subject in question. Occasionally the IQ is combined with grades. Since work is departmentalized, any given boy or girl may be doing Honors work in English but attend a so-called normal class in other subjects. Some ticklish administrative problems frequently arise and even the very large schools find it necessary to abolish some Honors Classes on occasion. No thoroughgoing study has ever been made of the outcomes from this plan; yet many teachers and students like the arrangement. It does provide opportunity for enriching the curriculum and for raising standards of achievement in keeping with student ability.

A second device, somewhat less used because it is feasible only in a very large school, is to organize an Honors School within the school. This tends to select the college-bound students. A portion of the faculty is usually selected to deal with these students. All the classes are then in the Honors category. The special staff of teachers find opportunity to confer at regular intervals, so as to co-ordinate their efforts. The degree of homogeneity attainable by this device is not nearly as great as in the case of special Honors Classes. Administrative problems are less severe, if the school is large enough; but parent and teacher objection is greater. There is also frequent complaint from students when compelled to meet standards higher than those applied to their fellows in the more normal segment of the school. Though much criticized, those schools which have Honor Schools praise them highly on the ground that they provide opportunities for the gifted they would never have had otherwise. While no thoroughgoing studies on Honors Schools have been published, they have been discussed in detail, with *pros* and *cons* in the references cited below.¹

OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE GIFTED IN THE SPECIALIZED HIGH SCHOOL

A third device for reducing the magnitude of differences in instructional groups is to organize an entire school, its curriculum, faculty, equipment, and procedures, around a *purpose* that is meaningful and attractive to the students. The latter apply for admission; they need not enroll if the announced purpose does not appeal to them. Further, all who apply are not admitted. The school is permitted to develop such standards of admission, as are in keeping with the school's purpose and which will make more likely that the student will profit from the school's offering. Early identification on the part of an individual of a strong interest or aptitude produces a

¹ *Bulletins of High Points*, New York City Schools, December 1930, September 1940, November 1940, and May 1940.

"halo effect." It often serves as motivation for learnings in related fields and stimulates generalized achievements. Furthermore, in the case of those "purposeful schools" which are based on areas of learning requiring reading comprehension, possession of fundamental skills and ability to reason, the school's very purpose tends to select automatically a group of high-level ability students.

So far as we know, the role of *purpose* has never been thoroughly explored as a means of providing opportunities for the gifted. The specialized high school is attempting to do this for large groups of moderately and highly gifted boys and girls who, early in life, have identified for themselves a serious life interest and aptitude.

THE SPECIALIZED HIGH SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK CITY

The specialized high school is a school above the eighth grade, designed throughout to meet the needs, interests, abilities, and terminal aims of a particular segment of the adolescent population. The opposite of the specialized high school is the general or neighborhood high school, designed to educate all the children of the neighborhood with only such adjustments to individual needs as can be provided under one roof.

1. *Student selection on the basis of interest, ability, and terminal aims creates both a favorable learning situation and a democratically desirable social environment.*

Educators agree that the optimum learning situation is one in which the tasks set the learner is within the range of his ability but difficult enough to require considerable effort. If the task exceeds the capacity of the learner, not only does he fail to learn anything by it, but, if the situation is repeated often enough, he may also develop a sense of frustration.

A heterogeneous student body is sometimes urged on the ground of democracy. This argument is specious. It is not true that individuals in a democracy live and work in groups as heterogeneous as the generality of the population. The home, the family, and the circle of friends which surrounds it are all fairly homogeneous groups. Even at work, one's associates are not as heterogeneous as the generality of the population. The goal to be striven for is a well-articulated society and not a perfectly diffused one. It is not always true that bringing widely divergent groups together in a school is the best method of teaching them to understand each other, or of teaching them the way to make such contacts pleasant and mutually helpful.

A completely homogeneous student body is neither possible, nor is it ever an end which is sought directly by a specialized high school. The specialized high school does seek to avoid the unworkable ranges now commonly found in the general high school.

2. *The specialized high school provides many students with a purpose, which, for them, the general high school lacks.*

Purpose is the motive power of the learning process. Students can accomplish tasks quite beyond the degree of competence they usually display

if they have a strong purpose which is their own. The many recent youth studies have shown clearly that the purpose which dominated the general high school never became the abiding purpose of many of the students.

The upper segment of high-school students finds in the appropriate special school a realization of purpose which they can not find in the general high school. They can do the required work in much less time than it takes the other students. When this extra time is not wasted, it is rarely employed at levels which bring the maximum return. In a specialized high school this extra time is used to better advantage.

3. *The specialized high school is consistent with the ideal of a well-rounded education.*

The specialized high school does *not* encourage narrow specialization, nor an education devoid of the aesthetic and cultural content. And there is nothing in the specialized school which makes this necessary. On the basis of any definition of culture, the specialized high school is in a more favorable position to create an environment conducive to cultural growth. The fact is that students in science high schools, for example, study more English, more social studies, more mathematics and as much foreign language, music, and art by comparison with the students in general high schools.

A well-rounded program does not necessarily produce well-rounded students. A broad education is the product of broad interests. And interests do not operate in single compartments; they reach out and include a number of related fields. If, on the other hand, the student lacks a real interest, the entire school machinery will be able to do little more than to bring him to the point of passing an examination.

The interest pattern of the very intelligent is broad and it extends to things not directly connected with the individual. For such an individual a real and lively interest in world problems, in literature, in art, in music comes naturally.

4. *The specialized high school makes a better integration of the curriculum possible.*

The human mind, like the human body, tends to function as an organism rather than as a mechanism. Yet, the high-school curriculum, with its many "subjects" in airtight compartments suggests a mechanistic approach. For the students the curriculum is the sum of a number of constants and variables. Little provision is made for weaving the subjects into an organic, integrated whole. This is not to say that all parts of all subjects can or should be fused. It does imply that there are many ideas which belong together and that they should be brought together in the learning process.

To do this with any effectiveness at all for the adolescent, one must utilize the binding power of his central purpose. Such a purpose exists for students in a specialized high school. We can more readily bring ideas together that belong together. While "subjects" and their syllabi look the same when written down on paper for both types of school, the teaching and the

learning which results are totally different. One need only to visit a classroom in English or social studies or physics in a specialized high school to be impressed by the extent and the quality of curriculum integration.

HOW MANY SPECIALIZED HIGH SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK CITY?

The publicly supported secondary schools in New York City number about eighty, exclusive of the junior high schools. About twenty of them might be termed "specialized" in the sense that their philosophies, organizations, curricula, and equipment center about a "purpose." Not all of them set up specific tests for admission; yet all of them are, in effect, selective; their "purposes" are well communicated and well understood by teachers, parents, and students. At least four of them center about "purposes" which tend to select high-level ability students. These are Brooklyn Technical High School, High School of Music and Art, High School of Science, and Stuyvesant High School. Only the High Schools of Music and Art and of Science are co-educational.

WHAT KIND OF CHILDREN ARE THEY?

Here is a brief and generalized profile: While he (or she) wants to go to college and make "science" his career, he is not too specific in this interest. He is a year younger than the average high-school student of the same grade; but he knows his fundamentals in arithmetic and spelling. He reads voraciously all kinds of books and periodicals. He is alert to current issues and is capable of profound loyalties and support to causes. He gripes about too much homework but puts a considerable amount of time on daily study, spending much spare time in his home "lab" and with other hobbies. Because he is eager and vocal, he is sometimes difficult to control in class. He is hard on the teacher and can spot at once the one who "doesn't know his stuff." He has achieved an early sophistication in the importance of marks and is prone to become an "eager beaver," wise to the ways of short cuts to high grades. His mental and physical health is splendid. In our school he welcomed the advent of girls with wild acclaim—the alumni mourning this event as "too little and too late." Though young, he is proficient in athletics, participating in baseball, soccer, swimming, basketball, tennis, handball, and track. He may work after school and during the summer. He is a great joiner of clubs. His IQ is exactly at the median for the school and it is about 130. He gives his teachers the greatest possible lift, spiritually and professionally; he leaves them limp as rags at the end of the day.

About two per cent of his classmates are maladjusted in one way or another; some of them run away from home, or cheat, or cause other disciplinary infractions. About five per cent of his classmates are hit hard by adolescence in about the junior years, and go to pieces scholastically. The parents come from every economic level and are engaged in many types of work and professional activities; but are all keenly interested in the school and the progress of their children.

THE FACULTY

In the early years of the school's history, the principal was able to select ten young, well-trained and competent heads of departments. They have been towers of strength in developing the school's philosophy and practice. Among the remaining ninety members of the staff, many able and superior teachers volunteered to transfer to the school from other schools. Due to an annual turnover of about ten per cent in personnel, the staff as a whole has changed considerably over the years. New personnel is obtained from civil service lists of licensed teachers, and are, by and large, well-equipped. It may be pointed out that in twelve years, more than thirty of the staff have won promotions as heads of departments of school principals. Nevertheless not all of the present faculty are ideally suited for the task of guiding gifted children. In this connection we wish to endorse the point of view of the NEA Policies Commission as to the qualities especially needed in a teacher of gifted children.

SOME STUDENT AND ALUMNI ACHIEVEMENTS

Practically all of the students are admitted to college. The record is perhaps best summarized in the results of the class of June, 1950, which numbered 391 boys and girls. They received 875 admissions from 125 different colleges and were awarded 175 scholarships worth about \$200,000.

Space hardly permits a description of the thousands of brilliant achievements to the credit of these gifted students. One sixteen-year old was elected Fellow of the Royal Microscopic Society of London for his work on microscopes. Another discovered a new species of fruit fly and was acknowledged the discoverer by a world-famous entomologist. A third student sent a sample of a new variety of mold of neurospora to Dr. Dodge of the New York Botanical Gardens, who named it H.S.S., the initials of the school. Another boy made a discovery in protozoology which was independently made by a professor at Brown University and published. One alumnus, as a junior at Harvard, was assigned to Dr. Oppenheimer's staff at Los Alamos and assisted at the trial of the first atom bomb. The alumni now numbers about 300 doctors and dentists, about 1500 engineers, about 200 research men, about 500 laboratory technicians, and about 1000 school and college teachers of science. Fifteen per cent of the alumni have gravitated to business, journalism, non-science teaching, and other non-science professions. One has become a well-known concert pianist; another an outstanding artist.

COMMUNITY REACTIONS

Dr. Vannevar Bush, formerly Director of the Office of Science Research and Development, had this to say about the school five years ago:

Convinced as I am that there has never been a time when cultivation of science talent is so important to the welfare of our nation and the world, I welcome the opportunity to speak a word for the kind of program which the Bronx High School of Science has been carrying on during the past seven years. This is a very positive contribution toward replenishing of our sadly depleted stock of scientifically trained intelligence. The breadth of the program of the Bronx High

School of Science—in its inclusion of ample study of the humanities—is not only a safeguard against the hazard of narrow specialization but also the best guarantee that its graduates will have the depth of understanding necessary for the full utilization of scientific skill in their later careers.

This praise in high places is couched in terms especially meaningful for these times.

An internationally known writer, whose son attended the school and was killed in the recent war, memorializes his son's name in a biography in which he speaks high words of praise for the school. In addition, he offers a prize of several hundred dollars at each commencement to some graduate.

A parent whose son died while in attendance at the school has established a foundation which is currently paying all expenses of twelve graduates through college and professional school, and supplies the school liberally with current needs not otherwise obtainable. Recently the foundation established a Music Lounge in the Library, with thousands of dollars of recordings and a sound system which enables students to listen to records through earphones.

A leading department store merchant in the community, whose son found security at Science after being unhappy in a private school, is seeking to express his appreciation in a contribution, *without strings*, which is measured in thousands of dollars.

These material gifts symbolize the spirit of good will that has permeated the community regarding the work of the school.

SOME UNSOLVED PROBLEMS

Like any other venture into uncharted seas, the sailing has not all been smooth. The general question of the specialized school as a moot educational problem is encountered here in intensified form.

Some contend that the secondary school is too early in a student's career for him to engage in any type of specialization. They point to the student whose interest in science wanes, but who is unable to make the easy adjustment in course that a large, diversified school makes possible. Of course, the school attempts to avoid criticism on this score, by careful explanation of its purpose and by screening of its entrants.

Another criticism concerns itself with the issue of democracy. Much has been said on this question and surely the *pros* and *cons* of this issue have by now been thoroughly set forth; but they have never been subjected to rigorous objective test. To those who deal with boys and girls in specialized schools day by day, this criticism brings only smiles. They would challenge the critics, invite them into the school to observe the children at work and at play. In all that they do, they exemplify a free society in pursuit of democratic ideals in democratic fashion. Modesty rather than snobbishness is the quality that predominates. There are leaders and there are intelligent followers. The "purpose" around which the school centers can not and does not eliminate individual differences. Democracy cannot mean that it

is more important for a student to reach the teacher's minimum than to reach his own maximum.

Another criticism that has been raised arises from the undisputed fact that the entrance testing procedure tends to select students of superior intelligence. This results in a concentration of such students in one school, and may attenuate the honor rolls of others. While the answers to such questions as these lie in the general province of educational values, it must be said that students with clearly defined talents and interests ought not to be neglected. It has never been proved that the less able need the presence of the gifted in order to achieve their maximum.

Some members of the faculty feel that some of our students work under too severe tensions and at too great speed, with insufficient recreation. Others feel that the school's curriculum as organized at present does not allow pupils enough time to avail themselves of the full and varied offerings of such departments as art and music. These matters have been the subject of long faculty discussions, and some modifications have resulted and others are under consideration.

Among other unsolved problems is the problem of teacher recruitment. There is great unwillingness on the part of school authorities to give special consideration to the teacher needs of specialized schools. The teaching load is still too heavy. Administrative and organizational regulations are too sharply applied in view of the special needs of gifted children. One of the most annoying, sometimes frustrating problems is the attitude of some superintendents and principals toward the importance of special provisions for the gifted. Whenever a crisis of one kind or another occurs, the authority is likely to say: "Well, the bright kids will come out all right; they'll take care of themselves." The fact is that they do not.

A FINAL WORD

I realize that in discussing opportunities for gifted high-school students I have focused attention entirely upon only half of the 600,000 gifted students in America—the half that happen to live in populated areas. Yet, an attack upon half of the problem is certainly worth while. Again, we stress that the other half of the problem is so different in kind that it warrants an entirely new approach by those who must deal with the situation day by day.

The High School of Science is now in its thirteenth year. In that time it has been accumulating convincing evidence that science talented youth need a specialized type of secondary-school education—specialized, however, only in the sense of giving science a special part to play in educating such youth for a free society. It seems vital to the welfare of the country that we conserve this special human resource for the needs of a scientific age. No great nation can now afford to neglect its science talent. Not only is national security at stake, but the security of civilization itself.

What Provisions for the Education of Gifted Students?

HAROLD A. ODELL

AT the outset, it should be noted that the wording of the title of this discussion commits us to the premise that special provision should be made for the group of students identified as gifted. This point of view implies that such provision will provide a more sound educational program for this group. This writer wants to go on record as saying: there is (1) the need of school administrators for a recognition of this problem, and (2) the need for special curricular provision for the education of our superior boys and girls. It should be conceded that this will not be a definite discussion of this subject; but instead, some problems will be posed and some alternatives suggested.

There has been considerable research in the diagnosis and selection of gifted children and some experimentation in the organization of ability groups as a technique for educating the intellectually gifted. Little can be found in educational literature relative to the curriculum of special classes for bright children in high school. How shall the curriculum be organized for such a class? What shall it include? How will teaching methods be affected under this Plan? How can results be evaluated? These and many other questions have not been conclusively answered.

In adult life, we have an obligation to our gifted contemporaries and these leaders in turn have a debt to society. In the days of the "Jacksonian Democracy" we were taught the rather fallacious doctrine that all men are equal. We still seem to idealize the average man and tend to underestimate the worth of the exceptional man. (This point of view does not include our professional athletes or Hollywood personalities.) A scientific or artistic genius may be somewhat revered, but we usually regard such people as "different." The popular concept of tolerance toward the gifted is not enough. All schools are responsible for the discovery and the education of outstanding human talent in a society of self-government where good leaders are indispensable.

Superintendent Campbell of the New York City schools succinctly stated a long time ago that: "Education is something more than the process of guiding youth out of the realm of incompetence. . . . The school that fails to offer opportunity for the child of unusual gifts is as fully neglectful as the school that offers nothing to the child of limited endowment. The school must be as zealous to do for the genius as for the dullard."

Most laymen and professional educators will agree that, in order to perpetuate democracy, one of the prime requirements is to provide for an equality of opportunity for all boys and girls of public school age. They would also concede that schools should provide conditions that will permit *all* pupils to develop to the fullest extent. This is one of the fundamental concepts of the American public schools.¹

¹ Cohen, H. L., and Coryell, N. G., *Educating Superior Students*. See Foreword I by H. G. Campbell. American Book Company, 1935.

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Another fundamental principle of education is the law of individual differences. This concept of psychology has led most school administrators to attempt the adjustment and adaptation of their educational programs to meet these individual differences.

With the recent trend to raise the compulsory school age, the adoption of child labor legislation, and the economic depression, the secondary-school population has changed in the character of its members as well as in the character of its enrollment. A good many pupils of average or below average mental ability, who have less interest in academic learning, are now attending school. This segment of the school population in a good many areas would be employed in industry or agriculture, if it had the choice to make.

The increased range of the mental capacity of our pupils has resulted in contributing to a condition where we do not actually provide equalization of educational opportunity for our bright children. Some would go as far as to say that the schools are undemocratic because they are not providing opportunities for the superior pupils to develop their maximum abilities. Democracy, in order to endure, must develop leaders that have the training, the vision, the courage, and the ability to furnish enlightened leadership. One place to stress leadership training is during adolescent growth. All the people can't become leaders, but people can be trained for leadership. Our gifted children constitute the schools' greatest political asset.

One factor that influenced the policies of the school administrators toward the problem of the atypical child was the emergence and refining of the science of education. The use of tests and measurements, statistics, and the research in the psychology of learning all contributed to the recognition of the problem.

Galton in 1865² made probably the first scientific observation that the outstanding contributions to society were made by people of superior ability. Cattell³ observed in his investigation of 1,000 American men of science living between 1910-1915, who were the most outstanding in the opinion of their contemporaries, that (1) the majority of the fathers of these men came from the learned professions, (2) that laborers' children were not among them, and (3) that scientists tend to grow up in the city.

These and other investigations seem to indicate that intellectual capacity is inherited. Psychologists and sociologists do not all agree that great achievement can be attributed entirely to the native qualities of the individual or to the environmental conditions. It should be apparent, however, that a democracy, in its own interest, should require that each person contribute to its society all that inheritance and training can permit him. The public schools have an inescapable responsibility in contributing to the maintenance of democracy. The high school should make provision for the gifted for these main reasons:

(1) Such provision will in itself discharge this responsibility by providing for the development of *all* the pupils to the full extent of their potential-

² Hollingworth, Leta. *Gifted Children*. Chapter 1. Macmillan, 1935.

³ *Ibid.*

ties, and (2) it will furnish a training ground for the future leaders of our democracy. If an adequate educational program is to be provided, it must be adapted to meet the individual needs of *all* the pupils.

We have long admitted the need for special provision for the slow learner and the mental defective. We have gone to great expense in considering the welfare of the mentally and physically deficient in the public schools, and in private and public institutions today such financing is inadequate. Our sympathies are aroused immediately when the needs of this segment of our school population are known. We are justly sentimental in our desire to help those who are unable properly to help themselves.

Although we do not intend to play one against the other, the large group of mentally handicapped⁴ has diverted our attentions from a more important group of the "educationally neglected"—the gifted. Schools and teachers have, by habit or inclination, assumed that the superior child will learn without special attention. In the typical school room of a heterogeneous group, the teacher of average ability devotes most of his time to the average or slow learner. The superior pupil either forms habits of neglect or inattention that lead to boredom and laziness or, upon his own initiative, he will vary his class activities to suit his interests. Occasionally, a child of superior intelligence becomes a disciplinary problem, but usually he causes no disturbance. Working at a fraction of his capacities, he shows little interest in drill but still manages to meet the minimum scholastic standards required of the class. By permitting a range of 80 I.Q. to 150 I.Q. in the same class, we are actually promoting mediocrity.

There is general agreement that schools are failing adequately to educate the superior child. But there is no agreement on the *best* provision for the solution of this problem.

Of 1,430 young adults who scored in the top 1 per cent on an intelligence test twenty years before, only 12 failed to complete high school, but 121 stopped their education with high-school graduation. More than one fourth of the group were employed in occupations requiring no more than average intelligence. Terman⁵ established that "practically all the gifted subjects were potentially college material and probably one third left school with less—often much less than they should have had." Tests administered to fifteen million men in the military services in World War II revealed that many gifted men had not been discovered. The sinews of war demanded that the armed forces utilize the talents of these men.

A recent study⁶ revealed that from 90 per cent of the superior students who come from the upper economic class were attending college. Less than 20 per cent of the superior students from the lower economic brackets attended college. World problems of vital importance are leaving their impact. Educa-

⁴ Goodwin Watson, *Progressive Education*, May, 1941. Page 251: "One in twenty spend some time in a mental hospital."

⁵ Terman, Lewis M., and Oden, Milton H., *The Gifted Child Grows Up*, Stanford University Press, 1945. Palo Alto, California.

⁶ Goetsch, Helen. *Parental Income and College Opportunities*. Teachers College Contribution to Education, N795, Columbia University, New York, New York.

tion is challenged to develop leadership. Special education for the gifted is not only warranted, but the very continuance of democracy demands it.

Two main problems emerge in a consideration of this problem: I. Identifying the Gifted, and II. Special Provisions for the Gifted.

I. IDENTIFYING THE GIFTED

Verbal ability is frequently overemphasized in our attempts to identify the superior students. The world needs talents of many types—scientific, artistic, and social—and much progress has been made in measuring talent as compared to the casual, informal observations used formerly, but very few studies have been made of the subsequent education of people with scientific or artistic gifts. The discovery of the gifted is not easy. It involves serious problems in the personality development of young people. It would be well for a school to define the gifted before it begins the task of discovering students with these characteristics.

In order to identify the gifted, the following criteria should be considered:

(1) *Teacher Judgment*—Classroom teachers, guidance counselors, homeroom teachers, athletic coaches, and activities sponsors should all be consulted. They should be asked to differentiate between actual achievement and the capacity to achieve. Special aptitudes should be identified and recorded in such activities as writing, acting, and music. Studies have shown that boys and girls with marked mental ability are not always talented in other activities than intellectual, but other investigations indicate that geniuses in music, art, and science are usually characterized by a high degree of intellectual ability. Teachers must also be aware that chronological age is of paramount importance in identifying the gifted.

(2) *Scholastic Record*—This should show evidence of a continuity of achievement in relation to the personality traits of the student. Even though school marks are not infallible, if enough evidence is available from a variety of teachers, it becomes a reliable index of the scholastic ability of the student.

(3) *Standardized Tests*—Intelligence and achievement tests should be administered. Professor Terman's policy of a "cutting" score of 140 I.Q. to identify the intelligent gifted has found common usage, or about the top 1 per cent of the total population. In selected communities or schools, this ratio would increase. If the evidence selected from the above criteria is properly appraised, a basis will have been established for the identification of the superior students.

II. SPECIAL PROVISIONS FOR THE GIFTED

The education of the gifted must be different from the education of other students in quantity, kind, and the demands for the use of insight. Ideally every school and teacher should have a systematic organization and procedure for the education of superior students, based on a local study and local needs.

(1) *Acceleration*—St. Louis pioneered in the acceleration of bright pupils by promoting them at short intervals.⁷ In 1868, Dr. W. T. Harris reported to

⁷ 23rd Yearbook, National Society of the Study of Education, Page. 8.

the annual convention of the National Education Association that the plan had the advantages of stimulating the superior children to work up to their capacity. It is common practice, especially in the elementary school, to permit bright pupils to "skip" one grade, on the assumption that it would be uneconomical for them to spend the next year with their own class.

This method has the advantage of challenging the more able student, and it permits him to avoid frustration and growth of bad work habits. It is the easiest administrative procedure to utilize. Time and expense will be saved for these students. They will become productive at an earlier age. This technique has the disadvantage of involving the danger of possible social maladjustment of the youngster unless the bright student has matured in direct ratio to his intellectual capacity, and, even with acceleration, the younger, brighter child will learn faster than his older classmates. Acceleration should not be resorted to unless a systematic evaluation has been made of the individual student concerned.

(2) *Enrichment*—Superintendent Shearer in 1896 devised a plan in Elizabeth, New Jersey, for the division of each of the eight grades into sections according to ability. Essentials were covered by each section in proportion to the ability of the class. The concentric plan at Santa Barbara, which divides each grade into an A, B, and C group is somewhat similar. Minimum essentials are covered by all the groups, but the B group does more work than the C section, and the A group goes a faster pace and covers more than Section B. This plan seems to provide more for enrichment of the course of study than for the acceleration of the good students. The students may advance from one section to the next, however, which has the advantage of flexibility.

By his very nature, the gifted child has an enriched life in his experiences, insights, and appreciations. But the child cannot grow to his potential with self-direction only. He needs a *planned* enrichment. The enrichment of subject matter and other educational experiences seem to have the advantage of adapting the material and teaching to the individual as enrichment does in acceleration, without the accompanying possible danger of social maladjustment involved in "skipping." It also follows the ideal of adapting school work to every individual student and not for a group of students. One study^{*} revealed that better all-around results were obtained where a program of enrichment was followed in comparison to a general school program. There is no available evidence of cases where there was too much enrichment. There is no apparent dichotomy between enrichment and acceleration. As a matter of fact, they complement each other.

Enrichment in the area of literature and writing is almost boundless when motivated by superior teaching. It provides opportunities for more specialized study as well as for opening up new, unexplored areas. In the activities program, gifted students have an ideal climate in which to develop—student government, music, a wide variety of clubs, and athletics.

(3) *Ability Grouping*—One of the plans developed relatively recently, to com-

^{*} Sumption, Merle R., *Three Hundred Gifted Children*, World Book Co., Yonkers, N. Y., 1941.

pensate for the weakness and ineffectiveness of the regimentation of the grades system, was the development of homogeneous-ability grouping. According to Billett, only one article appeared on this subject before 1910.⁹ There were but five cities that provided for special classes or schools for gifted pupils before 1911.¹⁰ Although there has been a substantial increase in this technique, there has not been complete acceptance of such grouping.

One of the first references to ability grouping is found in the Annual Report of San Francisco in 1873.¹¹ This report stated that pupils in high school, "Shall be arranged in divisions according to proficiency." In 1908, Cleveland grouped some pupils according to a "proficiency, scholarship, ability, industry, health, capacity during the preceding term, successive examinations of the previous year, and marks received in examinations for admission."¹² By 1917, the Cleveland schools had begun a limited use of standardized tests in grouping pupils for rapid progress.¹³ But it was not until 1921, with the aid of improved intelligence tests, that Cleveland began its well-known Major Work Groups. The Cleveland superintendent reported in 1938 that "the school program that best meets the needs of the child is the one that gives consideration to, and is based on, the child's ability to do school work successfully."¹⁴

Ability grouping had its inception in the high schools, but in recent years this classification has found greater popularity in the elementary schools. In 1935, out of a total school enrollment of 5,941,605 for the cities in the United States with a population of 100,000 or over, only 2,293 pupils were classified in a special class for the gifted. One thousand two hundred and forty-one of these were in the Cleveland schools, and 273 in the Boston schools.¹⁵ In its Honors Schools and Classes, New York City has made rapid and significant studies in solving this problem.

Optimum learning in school is closely related to intellectual ability; therefore, as in acceleration, group learning can be accomplished more efficiently by grouping students on the criterion of ability than by chronological age. It is desirable to use the I.Q., the scholastic record, teacher judgment, and chronological age as criteria for ability grouping. By this policy all children are promoted by natural growth and at the same time as are their classmates. In a ninth-grade English class of 300 pupils, ten sections might be organized from one to ten in decreasing ability. Accompanied by the characteristic of pupil ability, provision could be made of the variations in courses of study for college preparatory work, business education, and general education. The number of sections in the English college preparatory course would be determined by the number of students enrolled in that curriculum. The average

⁹ Billett, Roy O., *Provisions for Individual Differences and Promotion*, Page 18, Washington, D. C.; Government Printing Office.

¹⁰ Bulletin 14, U. S. Bureau of Education, 1911.

¹¹ Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools, San Francisco, 1873, Page 151.

¹² Annual Report of the Board of Education, Cleveland, 1908, Page 49.

¹³ *Ibid.*

¹⁴ *Ibid.*

¹⁵ Foster, E. M., and Martens, E. H., *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1934-35*, II, 29-30, Bulletin Number 2, 1937, Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938.

and the slow learners would, by that plan, have their class work adapted to their abilities and needs. These pupils would not be as likely to get discouraged in competing with the bright pupils in a heterogeneous class. This facility of variation could be applied to common learnings in high school or college.

Because of the higher achievement standards required, ability grouping has the advantage of challenging the more able students to a greater degree than does a heterogeneous class. The course of study for such a gifted group should actually provide the enrichment argued for by the advocates of enrichment. Enrichment and individualization of instruction in a heterogeneous class is difficult if not impossible for the average teacher. Ability grouping, say its proponents, would facilitate the differentiation of instruction required for the best educational results. Bright students would have less opportunity for the rapid growth of their ego in a class where it is not as possible for them to be superior to their fellows. Superior teachers, with skill and imagination that will inspire boys and girls, are essential for producing the best results in a class of superior students. Most subject teachers say that teaching a bright class is much easier than a normal class.

Advocates of acceleration maintain that ability grouping is undemocratic because it offers different and better opportunities to a selected few and that it results in the development of a stigma for the lower ability groups. Other opponents of ability grouping contend that in the adult world one has to live with all types of people and that ability grouping provides for an artificial conditioning for adult life. This argument may be countered by stating that if ability grouping is followed, homeroom groups, athletic teams, social affairs, and other school activities should be composed of all students of all levels of intelligence. It is generally agreed that ability grouping would be uneconomical, and probably unwise, in small high schools.

(4) *Elective Courses*—Schools that provide effective guidance services will be able to tailor individual student's schedules to the varying needs and abilities of each student. Rightly or wrongly, gifted boys and girls will usually elect a sequence of the traditional college preparatory subjects. Those with musical, artistic, or mechanical talents will be interested in choosing courses that will promote the utilization of these talents. Good counseling will be essential in a school program that makes provision for a wide choice of electives. Such a program has the advantage of enabling the student to be better qualified to choose an area of specialization in college while, at the same time providing opportunities for necessary general education.

No one of the four educational devices discussed above will be adequate to meet all the educational needs of the gifted. Every superior student needs enrichment. All need programs of elective courses. Able school administrators should consider acceleration in individual cases and some school principals will record success with ability grouping. In medium and large high schools, a combination of several of these special provisions could be applied; in fact, many high schools have incorporated all of these special techniques in their programs.

At the risk of seeming inconsistent, one should point out that some people do object to making any special provision for superior students. People who object to any recognition of gifted youngsters argue that it is incongruous in a democracy to promote the formation of an aristocracy of the intellectually elite. In passing, we might note that the same group also opposes any deferment for military service of superior boys. They seem to confuse the issue with an appeal to the emotions—believing that universal military service is a moral question, as opposed to selective service. It would seem to us that the important criterion on this question is what is best for the preservation of our country and of our way of life. Some would go as far as to say that bright boys can contribute more to their country by continuing in their training than by being soldiers.

Fundamentally, the same issue exists in our public schools. Should the schools, dedicated to the teaching of democracy and good citizenship, make special provision for gifted boys and girls? Should teachers apply or reject what we have learned about the law of individual differences? There are many things at stake inherent in this question among which are: (1) What is best for the bright boy or girl? (2) How does this relate to society?

High-school administrators have been frequently criticized as reactionary and unwilling to adopt changes in educational practice. There are many reasons why some high-school principals find it undesirable or impossible to try out many "new" educational techniques—some of these reasons are justifiable, but it should be possible for responsible educational authorities, such as state boards of education, professional associations, or field service adjuncts of teachers' colleges, to promote and encourage pilot studies in the area of the gifted child. Without sacrificing educational standards, schools should be laboratories for such experiments. High-school principals should not resort to the old shibboleth that college admission requirements prohibit such experimentations. This argument has assumed the role of rationalization with many school administrators.

When our high-school principals agree that they have a special responsibility to our gifted children and are willing to translate this belief into some experimentation in educational practice to help carry out this responsibility—then we will begin to record the evidence we need to support the conviction that, as a precious resource, our gifted boys and girls deserve special consideration.

Group V—Parlor B

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Spiritual Values in the Secondary School Program

F. ERNEST JOHNSON

IN this brief address I shall attempt four things: (1) to clarify the concept of spiritual values; (2) to point up the relevance of the problem of values to the secondary school; (3) to define the relationship between spiritual values and religious beliefs; and (4) to indicate, without elaboration, the place that may properly be given to religion in the secondary-school program.

First, I understand by spiritual values those qualities of life that are associated with excellence. They are qualities that exalt the human spirit. As such, they are self-validating, like the basic "truths" and "inalienable rights" with the Declaration of Independence puts forward as "self-evident." They have behind them the authority of cumulative human experience. I doubt if any more adequate or impressive statement of these qualities of life has been given than that written by Saint Paul in one of his immortal Epistles. I quote now from what is called the Revised Standard Version the famous exhortation: "Whatever is true, whatever is honorable, whatever is just, whatever is pure, whatever is lovely, whatever is gracious, if there is anything worthy of praise, think about these things." It is no accident, surely, that in this ancient formula intellectual, moral, and aesthetic elements are combined in an enumeration of goals worthy of pursuit by the human spirit. Indeed, I would say that those three disciplines which used to be called "normative"—logic, ethics, and aesthetics—constitute a veritable trinity of values which, when pursued as ends and not merely as means, are self-validating goals of human aspiration and endeavor.

Currently, the words spiritual and moral, as applied to values, are being used interchangeably, and almost synonymously—as in the expression "moral and spiritual values in education." There are those who would give to the word spiritual a somewhat more restricted meaning which can be defined only in religious terms. Yet to my mind this word spiritual has a broader connotation. I cannot avoid feeling that excellence is all of a piece, and that the appreciation of excellence as such is a spiritual achievement.

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Another way of putting the matter is to say that all *personal* values that we hold to be worthy are properly called spiritual. John Dewey has illuminated the distinction between values in this sense and values that are of a merely material sort. "The value," he says "is technical, professional, economic, *etc.*, as long as one thinks of it as something which one can aim at and attain by way of having, *possessing*; as something to be got or to be missed. Precisely the same object will have a moral value when it is thought of as making a difference in the *self*, as determining what one will *be*, instead of merely what one will *have*. . . . The choice at stake in a moral deliberation or valuation is the worth of this and that kind of character and disposition." This is precisely what I mean by a spiritual value. Within this category there is, of course, a hierarchy. Some people put personal integrity at the top; others give highest place to the contemplation of holiness. But all these personal values I take to be spiritual, and none of them is alien to the purposes of general education. The point I would most stress here is that value structure is unitary and continuous, and hence the school cannot neglect one facet of the structure without violence to the whole. And the reason is, of course, that the human person is a whole, and his experience is a whole.

Secondly, I offer the proposition that spiritual values can be taught in a wholesome school environment just as surely as skills can be taught, though in a different way. The difference is that between means and ends. A skill is a means of attaining an end. Make the list of ends, that is, of spiritual values, as long as you will. All of us would probably include those mentioned as basic by the authors of *The Public Schools and Spiritual Values*: "moral insight, integrity of thought and act; equal regard for human personality wherever found; faith in the free play of intelligence both to guide study and to direct action; and, finally, those further values of refined thought and feeling requisite to bring life to its finest quality." That blanket clause at the end, however, covers a great deal. One thinks of sensitivity with respect to the feelings and needs of others, sympathy, charity—not in the modern, corrupted sense, but in the wholesome original sense of the Latin *caritas*, cooperativeness, responsibility, courage, a faith that enables a man to stand up to the Universe. And I regard all these qualities as aspects of a total response to life that expresses a love of excellence in all forms—a response that is at once intellectual, moral, and aesthetic. We may say, with Robert Bridges:

"Live thou thy life beneath the making sun

Till Beauty, Truth, and Love in thee are one."

Now these spiritual values to which education seeks to give concrete expression in conduct are, of course, personality traits, or dispositional tendencies. We cannot here go into the controversy over "trait theory," nor is it needful to do so. About the desirable outcomes I think there is little controversy among us. We all want to develop in children and youth persistent *attitudes* that express a bent toward the worthwhile. However we may differ about the need for authority and "fixed points of reference" on the one hand and critical judgment in the light of objective consequences on the other, we all want

our schools to give to the community young persons who will be at home in a society that prizes spiritual goods. "We are sure," Mr. Dewey has written, "that the *attitude* of personal kindness, of sincerity and fairness, will make our judgment of the effects of a proposed action on the good of others infinitely more likely to be correct than will those of hate, hypocrisy, and self-seeking. . . . It is true, on one hand, that the ultimate standard for judgment of acts is their objective consequences; the outcome constitutes the meaning of an act. But it is equally true that the warrant for correctness of judgment and for power of judgment to operate as an influence in conduct lies in the intrinsic make-up of character; it would be safer to trust a man of a kind and honest disposition without much ability in calculation than it would a man having great power of foresight of the future who was malicious and insincere." To the extent that these finer attitudes are fostered education has a definitely spiritual aspect.

What I have been saying is relevant to education at both elementary and secondary levels, but it seemed to be basic to any fruitful discussion of the subject before us. Now what are the distinctive features of the secondary school with respect to the fostering of spiritual values? That no arbitrary line can be drawn between the elementary and secondary levels is abundantly attested by two facts: (1) the extensive experimentation that has been going on in recent years in the organization of secondary education with respect to the chronological age levels which it should comprise; (2) increasing awareness of the essential continuity of growth, with the resulting subordination of the notion of successive epochs. But however the secondary school may be defined new guidance has been found for the selection of educational emphases in the growing identification of the school with the common life. I take it, the classical tradition which made the high school a vestibule to college has been left behind. And I suspect most of us here reject also extreme vocationalism and welcome what is coming to be called general education. This development, though by no means so novel as some of the younger generation of educators may suppose, is in my judgment the most important feature of the contemporary educational scene. And the "high school" is the principal focus of the cultural concern which this movement reflects.

I think it highly significant that the Educational Policies Commission should have initiated the current study project: "Moral and Spiritual Values in Education." It surely reflects a conviction that orientation of the school program toward some recognized value structure is a prime need of our time. I would even suggest that a graduated scale of awareness with respect to issues of value and a similar scale of actual confrontation with these issues, in home and community, might furnish as useful a basis as any for the organization of general education with respect to levels of maturity. During the secondary-school years the relationship between parent and child becomes problematic; sex awareness opens up areas of conflict as well as of wholesome discovery; the wonder-world of science breaks on the growing imagination; the treasure-house of literature is unlocked; the turmoil of political and eco-

conomic life is discovered. At every point the crucial issue that emerges is a spiritual issue. Indeed it is only at the level of spiritual value, as I have tried to define it, that issues become really crucial. I think it may be safely asserted that the technical problems incident to the attainment of the "good life" have been sufficiently well solved to permit the human race to live in peace and harmony and in material comfort. The main goal of general education is to produce citizenship which can cope with the forces of cultural breakdown that are loose in the world.

As to methods of education with respect to spiritual values, I think we have sufficient experience to guide us. The total school situation and the total community situation, for which the school has a measure of responsibility, are more influential in the building of the value structure of boys and girls than any amount of specific instruction in particular classes. There must be integrity in the administration, scrupulous fairness in the relationships set up between teachers, between pupils, and between teachers and pupils. There must be more focusing of attention on extramural events; more recognition of the utter inadequacy of knowledge or of any batch of skills to create a good society if devotion to the common good is lacking; an increased effort to insure that the reaction against a too rigid discipline which obtained in the past will not result in throwing out the baby with the bath. Education for freedom will never be achieved unless freedom is understood in terms of voluntary obedience to the inexorable demands of life—an internalized discipline born of an understanding that "He that ruleth his spirit is greater than he that taketh a city."

Thirdly, what bearing has religion on this matter of spiritual values in education? I bring up this question not only because I think it too important to ignore, but also because controversy has been raging over the relevance of religion to spiritual values. Because of the inhibition, in law and public mood, against religious education in public schools many persons have sought to find in "*spiritual values*" a substitute for religion in the commonly accepted sense of that term. I think this is not only a mistake, but also a grievous fallacy. The relevance of religion in the value sphere is two-fold: as a source of faith in the reality and viability of our values, and as a means of generating spiritual insight and moral energy. There are religious leaders, and educators too, who contend that a value structure cannot be erected on a secular foundation; that is to say, that spiritual excellence is impossible without religious faith. An obvious corollary would be that democracy can rest secure only on a religious foundation. This, too, is affirmed by many.

The difficulty with these affirmations is that they are historical judgments which have to be sustained by reference to events. Personally, I am strongly of the opinion that in the long run, generation after generation, the fairest structure of "moral and spiritual values" will fall if it is not supported by the conviction that these values have, so to speak, a cosmic underwriting—that they have a meaning that transcends "our little life," and even our planet's little life; that, in the words of Joseph Addison, they will be

"Unhurt amidst the war of elements,
The wreck of matter, and the crush of worlds."

This, however, is an affirmation of belief, not a statement of fact. Conceivably it may be invalidated by history: it is at least logically possible that the fruits of the Judeo-Christian tradition might survive the destruction of the theological portion of its roots. All theologies and all religious philosophies undergo change. But I gravely doubt the viability of special values without the support of a cosmic faith. One of the ablest contemporary humanistic philosophers finds a minimum definition of God in Matthew Arnold's famous words: "a Power, not ourselves, that makes for righteousness." I think it very doubtful if mankind can remain spiritually alive with any lesser faith. I should like to associate myself with President Conant in expressing the view that "a feeling that the universe is somehow so constructed that each and every act of a human being has cosmic significance seems to me the minimum basis on which the Christian tradition firmly rests. If you couple this with wonder at the unexpected glimpses of man's ability and desire to move at least occasionally towards unselfish ideals of conduct, you may then have faith that the sum total of the human drama seen over a sufficient span is not 'a tale told by an idiot full of sound and fury,' but on the contrary, has a purpose, though it be hidden from us."

This brings me to my final point, concerning the place of religion itself in public education. It appears that a growing number of religious leaders, and perhaps of educators, are calling for the introduction of positive religious instruction into the public school curriculum. It is a bit ironical that a decision of the United States Supreme Court, designed to end or sharply limit the practice of weekday religious education with the co-operation of the public schools, should appear to have had as its sequel a demand that the schools themselves take responsibility for laying the foundations of a religious philosophy in the minds of their pupils. This development has come as a rude shock to many people, but I think it is quite understandable.

The Supreme Court's decision in the *McCormack* case was much more than a ban on the released-time plan as it operated in the case at bar. The ruling opinion in that case and in the *Everson* case which preceded it propounded a philosophy running far beyond church-state relationships in any institutional sense. To vast numbers of people the Supreme Court seemed to be saying, not merely that church and state must be separate, but that *religion* has no place in the sphere of government action. Little by little, the far-reaching consequences of such a doctrine came to be recognized by religious leaders, both Protestant and Catholic, who had been taught that religion is concerned with every public issue that has moral significance, and that religion must always be ready to admonish the state. The absurd lengths to which the Court's doctrine might be carried in eliminating religious subject matter from the teaching of the arts, for example, was pointed out by Mr. Justice Jackson, who concurred in the released-time decision. Moreover, the way in which the

decision was hailed by persons who were known to be hostile to all traditional religion probably contributed much to the untoward reaction.

Be that as it may, it is now being seriously and sincerely proposed that the public school teach, in affirmative fashion, the fundamentals of theistic faith. Here, for example, is a passage from a recent statement by the National Council of Independent Schools concerning the functions of secondary education, which was prefaced by the comment that the principle affirmed was as applicable to public as to independent schools:

"The tradition of American education derives from faith in God, faith in man, and the ideal of the widest educational opportunities for all. The establishment of churches was not intended to interfere with the faith of the people of the United States in a Supreme Being. When the country was founded, it was written into law and established in custom that, while there was to be separation between the powers of the state and those of churches, and while each American was to be protected from compulsory worship with any sect or creed, and while the right of any man to dissent according to his conscience was guaranteed, the reliance on God and trust in Him, by any believer, were to be recognized and perpetuated. Thus the source of our ultimate security and unity is an understanding of man's position in relation to eternal reality and participation in the resources of faith. This is the spiritual heritage to which our children are entitled."

There is no time to debate this issue here, but I will state an alternative position with reference to the public school's function which seems to me a sounder one. Let me put it in the form of a few propositions:

First, tax-supported schools should be in charge of their own program and should not become responsible in any degree for the conduct of religious education under private auspices.

Secondly, tax-supported schools should not teach affirmatively any religious doctrine, no matter how "non-sectarian" it may seem. To be sure, I believe this interpretation of the First Amendment goes beyond what the Founding Fathers intended, but I regard the Constitution as a living and growing instrument, and I think all attempts to interpret it simply by reference to what Jefferson or Madison said as reactionary and abortive.

Thirdly, the public school has an inescapable responsibility for giving the young minds committed to its care an understanding of the cultural heritage which belongs to them. Religion is a major part of that heritage. As is the case with conflicting doctrines in partisan politics, in economics, in literature, or in the arts, the school has no mandate to pronounce any religious doctrine true and final. But a culturally adequate education will appraise students of the role of religion in the life of man and will not, by conspicuous omission, create the impression that religion is quite unimportant. The chief focus of responsibility in this respect is the secondary school, and I suggest that the most promising fields of experimentation are the social studies, literature, and the arts.

Spiritual Values in the Secondary School Program

ELMER W. KIZER

EACH succeeding generation in America is the trustee of a legacy inherited from the Pilgrim Fathers. The legacy is the belief in a Supreme Being. The Pilgrims, because of religious persecution abroad, came to this land to worship according to the dictates of their own hearts. Great moral and spiritual values were involved in their faith. God to them was ever present and very real even during the first winter when death took over half their little band.

America grew and prospered because those who settled this land had faith in a Supreme Being and possessed moral fibre. Their faith was kept alive by men and women in succeeding generations whose depth of understanding, clarity of vision, and courageous imagination led men out of slavery into freedom, out of darkness into light.

The American Way of Life gives each person the right and opportunity to develop according to his own potentialities. These potentialities are not dominated by a totalitarian government whose leaders scoff at the existence of God, but are nurtured rather in a free society built upon the precepts of the Man of Galilee.

It is true that the freedom of development in such a society makes some persons feel insecure. Unlike the lands where the minds of the masses are subservient to the will of a dictator, the American democracy requires self-reliance of its citizens. It is the duty of the schools to alleviate all feeling of insecurity by training for freedom.

One source of development lies in the regular program prescribed by boards of education. Another source is in the teaching of intangibles which finds expression outside the curriculum.

The teaching of intangibles is not new in the operation of the schools. Undoubtedly, for many years, administrators and teachers have endeavored to instill in their pupils the principles basic to all-round development. The present urgency, however, for achieving a strong national unity demands renewed emphasis upon moral and spiritual values in education.

RELATED STUDIES

In recent years, school systems have attempted to utilize the best thinking within their own faculties and have published guidance material for reference.

The San Diego city schools, for example, have issued a pamphlet entitled "Spiritual Values." *Part One* of this publication emphasizes the following:

1. Respect for personality
2. Loyalty to the ideals of American democratic group living
3. Responsibility for self-direction
4. Perseverance in the pursuit of worthy goals
5. Sensitivity, creative ability, and reverence

Part Two stresses:

1. Influence of the teacher's personality

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Every successful educator is dedicated to the building of a more democratic society. The ideal is a life wherein the individual person is living to the fullest of his capacities as an individual and wherein each well-adjusted person finds himself a valuable member of a group or groups.

Therefore it behooves schoolmen to make all intangibles of value to the individual person. Perhaps that is why we call them values.

We start with attitudes. Attitudes are formed in relation to people and situations. They are learned. They come from the feeling we get in connection with experiences and people. The best attitudes come from experiences which leave pleasurable feelings or satisfactions of some sort. There are always emotional associations with our attitudes.

Attitudes become fixed and lead to values, the term we apply to our guides to actions, or what men live by. Values, then, are approved methods by which we deal and work with one another.

Each person gets his value *first* from his family. A child takes on the beliefs, points of view, and attitudes of his family. *Second*, at school, face-to-face relationships with other children and with adults will change or develop or add to the values he brings with him. *Third*, he is influenced by movies, radio, television, church, and books. *Fourth*, he accepts the attitude of other persons with whom he finds himself in close relationship, if the proper feeling is there. *Last*, he is shaped by experiences which give happy feelings and satisfactions. Values can be taught. They can be taught satisfactorily if we emphasize experience and relationships which prove satisfying.

We know, whether we will or not, by the very nature of values, the child will be acquiring them through every experience and every relationship. It is our job to see that the right ones are learned.

TECHNIQUES FOR PRESENTING VALUES

Generally speaking, we must avoid formal and abstract presentations. Values must be applied to specific situations that are meaningful to the child if they are to be real. If not, we have a verbal moralizing which we know to be ineffective.

We know that there is no absolute scale for measuring these values. Rather, behavior is determined by conflicting ideas. Values, like number combinations, are learned by practice—experiences repeated under skillful direction until the decisions and actions of the pupil prove he has acquired knowledge and skill. In this day when we are crying aloud for adult maturity, we recognize the importance of the well-rounded personality. All of this doesn't mean that we diminish the importance of teaching the academic skills in emphasizing the development of the emotional and spiritual needs of children.

The home, the church, and the school are the institutions to which we look for the development of the spiritual and moral character of our nation. If any of these fails, the other two must assume added responsibility. Broken homes are becoming even more common. In many homes both the mother and father work, a condition which makes proper parental supervision difficult.

The church may never have access to the lives of those who need its influence most. Therefore, to the schools falls the responsibility for developing an adequate code of personal and social values.

SPIRITUAL OBJECTIVES

What, then, are some of the objectives in developing the spirit of the secondary-school student? They may be summarized succinctly as follows:

1. To develop a knowledge of what peoples of all time have achieved toward the betterment of mankind.
2. To develop an appreciation of what other peoples have contributed to our culture.
3. To develop a sense of tolerance toward all peoples.
4. To develop the ability within our pupils to think clearly through the confused problem of our national welfare.
5. To develop a faith in oneself and in what one has to contribute to the world.
6. To develop the idea of reverence through discussion of the pupil's relationship to the universe and to God.

As secondary-school principals we are daily confronted with problems of media for the development of spiritual and moral values in our pupils. May I be specific and think through with you some of the avenues of approach to this problem?

THE HOME ROOM

In many schools the home room period is a good starting point for such training. Of course one immediately thinks of those home room teachers who have no qualifications and no desire to do much more than clerical duty. However, we do have many home room teachers who inspire their students either as a group or individually toward desirable goals. Many times school projects developed in home rooms aid greatly toward citizenship training.

THE SUBJECT TEACHER

The class room teacher contributes his share toward the ethical and moral training of his students. The influence of a teacher who looks beyond the teaching of subject matter and sees in his students the potentialities for moral and spiritual growth is tremendous. The teacher often takes a more important part in student development for strong character than any other person with whom he may come in contact.

THE STUDENT COUNCIL

The Student Council can contribute greatly toward developing school morale. Student participation in school control has replaced the older term student government in most of the recent educational literature. A feeling of co-operation between administration and student body is essential in creating harmony in the school. The development of student responsibility, initiative, and leadership; the promoting of proper student-faculty relations; the training for citizenship; the participation in and management of extra-curricular affairs are objectives that help develop the spiritual and moral standards of secondary-school students.

THE SCHOOL ASSEMBLY

School assemblies have an important place in the creating of proper atmosphere for growth of spiritual values. They are recommended as a unifying

influence in the school. Commercial assembly service can furnish speakers and entertainment which give students an appreciation of more than local significance.

Student participation in assemblies has more and more taken the place of paid talent. Special programs on such occasions as Thanksgiving, Christmas, Easter, and Brotherhood Week can have a spiritual significance of great worth.

THE HI-Y AND Y-TEENS

Hi-Y and Y-teens are organizations of definite religious nature. The purpose of the Hi-Y is to develop and promote Christian character within the school and community. In many schools the number of such clubs is limited only by failure to secure qualified sponsors. Here we find one avenue of religious instruction to pupils that is least objectionable to the patrons of the school.

THE JUNIOR RED CROSS

Over our nation comes the call for secondary-school students to serve humanity by enlisting unselfishly in the Junior Red Cross. The co-operation of students in the program of this organization develops such values as loyalty, generosity, and thoughtfulness of others. These are spiritual values that make for a wholesome secondary school. The guiding of the students into the larger service to mankind is our duty as principals.

CLUBS IN SPECIAL INTEREST AREAS

Students on the secondary level have long enriched their experience in the various subjects of the curriculum, languages, mathematics, science, the fine and practical arts, and journalism through participation in clubs and extracurricular activities. These organizations afford opportunities for leadership, loyalty, perseverance towards established goals, and devotion of time, energy, and talents in co-operative endeavor. Properly supervised, they not only fill the student's need for companionship and social life, but also deepen his respect for the rights and opinions of others. Projects set up for such organizations have unlimited possibilities for service to the school and may extend into the life of the community.

Indeed, the student extracurricular program sets up an embryonic democratic community in which students learn the profitable use of leisure time, contribute to philanthropic enterprises, raise funds for worthy causes, visit the old and sick, and labor hard in groups to effect improvements in their surroundings.

THE SOCIAL CLUB

In many schools, one segment of the student body holds membership in sororities and fraternities. Unsupervised, these secret societies have been centers of snobbishness, extravagance, and social excesses. The experiment in Cincinnati of taking these groups under the direction of the school, after long efforts to eliminate them had failed, has revealed that they, too, have potential ethical and spiritual values. School supervisors are minimizing the "secret" nature of their activities, replacing the blackball with democratic

elections, discouraging rough initiation practices, and integrating their projects with the life of the school.

The inherent merits of all social organizations, such as group planning and service, the development of leadership, and unfolding of socially acceptable personal qualities in the membership, have been given new emphasis. The natural desire to belong to a social group can be utilized in the service of the intangibles.

SUMMARY

Ethical and spiritual values nurtured in the schools not only preserve the humanitarian impulses of a free society, but also deepen the nation's reverence for the existence of God. This legacy given us as a birthright the schools must cherish and pass on to future generations.

Group VI—Parlor C

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What Training and Experience Standards for the Secondary-School Principal?

EARL R. SIFERT

In-Service Education and Community Relations

FOR the purpose of this discussion, in-service education is here defined as any education in the field of administration taken by a high school principal after having entered the active service of the teaching profession. At once such a definition of in-service education implies growth and development of the individual in various directions and through various contributing sources. The training and experience standards that secondary school principals might or should desire are probably as varied as would be the qualifications of most any type of professional worker.

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals, through a committee especially appointed to study the problem, reveals the fact that such a discussion must, of necessity, become a rather large report and even then it is not able to deal specifically with the minutia involved in such a study. With these extremes in mind, it is apparent that for today's brief statement only the "high spots" will be touched and those in only a few limited areas

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in the problem of training and experience standards. With these existing limitations in mind, it is fitting that we of today's program limit our discussions to some of the more tangible factors, if it can be said that any one factor is more tangible than any other.

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

We have heard much today of in-service education. It is right that we should hear much about such education. Certainly in the administrative teaching profession the desire and demand for continued education, after one has entered upon his professional work, is much greater than in a number of other professions. One could rightly expand on every phase of the training and experience needed for a proficient secondary school principal. Probably an over-all picture of some of the available avenues of in-service education may well be suggested. Such in-service education may then come from:

1. Educational experiences, which may well include practically every activity contacted in an actual way while in educational service.
2. Formal course work, taken after entering the profession. This may be in regular college sessions, summer school, or extension work, either before or after taking a degree.
3. Education derived from counsel or guidance by superior officers, or others, that aid in performing the functions, or in developing philosophies or creative power, needed in the administrative or supervisory work of the high school principal.
4. Growth from within, whether it be reading, experimenting, observation, or just pondering on the problems of the educational profession.

Even such a broad concept of in-service education may not be wholly inclusive of the many factors that contribute to the educational growth of a high school principal on the job. In the above factors, the matters of professional courses pursued by a high school principal will be covered by my colleague, Dr. John Rufi. For the purposes of this discussion, I should like to mention briefly some experiences in the educational activities of the high school principal and some activities in the community relationships of the principal that have been found helpful in the general education of a principal for his work.

Some years ago, the author made a study of the in-service training of approximately 200 high school principals in high schools of over 500 enrollment, and with an average experience of over twelve years. Such a basis for opinions, from such experienced men, portraying their varied types of in-service education, present some valid types of helpful in-service education. Among the experiences these men report as most helpful and most needed in the complete development of a high school principal are:

1. Classroom teaching of practically any subject in schools. There appears to be little doubt but that studied, classroom teaching offers an experience that not only results in improvement of the teachers, but directly aids in the necessary experiences and education needed by a high school principal. Furthermore, such experiences in practically any type of a school, be it elementary school, rural school, junior high school, senior high school, or college, afford added insights into the many problems a secondary school administrator has ultimately to meet. Certainly one can say with assurance that the future high school principal who now finds himself doing classroom teaching work will do well

to study each problem his class presents, if he is to develop a sound judgment for facing administrative or supervisory problems of the future. While teaching experience in any grade school, from the kindergarten to the college level, is highly beneficial, it may be, or may not be significant that most high school principals of twelve or more years experience had had previous classroom teaching experience at the high school level. Among those having such experience, it was found that more experienced high school principals had taught such subjects as mathematics, science, social science, or English more than any of the other subjects. In any event we may well say that a high school principal is hardly adequately qualified unless he has had some definite experience as a classroom teacher, and preferably in varying types of schools, including high school.

2. Not nearly all of the essential experiences of a high school principal can be gathered through classroom teaching, and many of the experiences are not contacted sufficiently in formal college courses in education. The mere listing of other pertinent experiences could easily be the topic for a lengthy discussion. Suffice it here to say that the 200 principals previously mentioned found the following on-the-job experiences to be an essential part of their complete education. Some of these fields, stated in a rather inclusive sense, dealt with experiences in such activities and fields as:
 - a. Keeping and making of records and reports of all kinds
 - b. Selection, training, and supervising of the school and maintenance personnel
 - c. Housing problems in all of its multitudinous forms
 - d. The problems of finance, including budgeting, insurance, school debts, activity finances
 - e. Pupil accounting including law enforcement, census, classification
 - f. Research affording many varied opportunities for local answers
 - g. Guidance in all of its far reaching aspects
 - h. Pupil control and direction
 - i. The exacting and extensive extra curricular programs
 - j. Administrative organization
 - k. Curricular planning and direction
 - l. School interpretation, especially for school patrons

Truly the high school administrator to be completely educated must be a jack-of-all trades and a master of all if youth is to be served adequately. We rightly ask where, oh where, will a man learn all this. Well, the places are many. Of course much of it may have its foundation in formal courses. But the experiences 200 principals revealed some interesting sources for their education, other than formal courses. It is highly regrettable that there appears to be little opportunity for high school principals to gain knowledge on many of these activities through an adequate apprenticeship program. Certainly an internship for school administrators would prove as valuable as in other professions. But in the general absence of such adequate programs, these experienced principals reported they had learned how to be efficient administrators largely through:

- a. Self help, in any possible manner, especially reading or study
- b. Continued classroom teaching
- c. Advice and counsel of colleagues, be they other administrators, teachers, or laymen. In fact, this appeared to be the most helpful.
- d. Conventions, conferences, and "bull sessions" play a much more important role than is commonly supposed
- e. School visitation has answered many problems

- f. Travel, public appearances, community relations, always an attitude of learning appears indispensable.

One could continue enumerating many other sources of experiences that serve as a genuine education for a high school principal. Chapters could be written and many sub-divisions established in any of the above activities. Doubtless much information about these various general fields is found in formal courses for high school administrators. Then, too, it is possible for a high school principal to have many of these experiences and still not learn. As in all education, one's attitude is a major determinant. If high school principals are to learn they must not only possess some knowledge about what should be learned, but certainly they should possess a zeal for learning. If there is any profession where one must never consider his education complete it certainly is that of a high school principal. By way of example then may we deal possibly with one of the above mentioned general fields. That one isolated item deals with the community relations, listed above as Item F.

COMMUNITY RELATIONS

It is trite to say that a school administrator needs knowledge of public relations. He needs far more than knowledge—he needs every experience he can get. He needs wisdom, tact, profound judgment, courage, and the most varied assortment of knowledge. The high school principal is expected to have the answers to school law. He is expected to know enough of good journalistic procedures to help in setting up a much needed program of school publicity or interpretations. It is entirely fitting that a member of the faculty, qualified in journalistic writing be given an assignment, as a part of his regular time occupation, which would result in weekly news copy for the local newspaper or radio station. The school administrator should read all such copy before it goes to press. Such a program results in a distribution of information about the many phases of a school quite in contrast to the usual limited athletic type of news print we get when we depend upon local reporters to do the job. Experience has shown that local newspapers are highly appreciative of copy presented them by some designated school faculty member. The school is much more than an athletic factory and unless the school administrator provides for a complete picture of local educational opportunities and activities in each and every department of the school, then certainly the newspaper phase of community relations is being neglected.

There are many other vital types of community relations. Too many schools fail to use pictures to tell the story of what is going on in the classroom as well as on the athletic field. The author has experienced on a number of occasions the procedure of whereby some 400 pictures were taken of classroom activities, learning situations from every department of a large high school. These pictures, 8" x 10" in size were mounted on 14" x 16" cards. No names of students involved were given, but under each picture was a brief statement of the learning situation portrayed. On one occasion hundreds of cards were posted in store windows throughout the district. In getting permission to put these in store windows, one prominent storekeeper was asked what he would pay to have a dozen such pictures in his window for a week, and he im-

mediately named a very substantial figure that he would pay for such school advertising in his store window. Of course, he was not charged, nor was any storekeeper charged. It was highly gratifying, however, to see groups of people gathered before these store windows studying pictures of learning opportunities that take place in the local high school. Such a series of pictures become invaluable in the guidance programs for students and parents. It is highly helpful to line the corridors of the high school with such an array of pictures. Students stop, literally by the hundreds, to study them and to get ideas about courses they would like to take. Pictures, as an educational opportunity in the field of community relations, must not be neglected.

A high school principal must be able to speak in public. He must know something about public speaking, about adapting himself to the many types of audiences he will meet. If a principal is not a good public speaker he ought to leave no stone unturned to make of himself at least an acceptable public speaker. It is not necessary that he "make the eagle scream" with his eloquence but he does need to present factual and interesting data from the school and about the future of the school in a commanding manner on many occasions. Needless to say, no such public speaker is very effective unless he has arranged in his own mind a formidable encyclopedia of local facts.

Then there is the social side of community relations not at all to be neglected. Principals agree that most successful high school administrators are those whose social life is a natural one, a sane one, given over to moderation, congeniality, and genuine enjoyment. Many serious school problems may well have the initial step toward solution found in social activities. The whole problem of social community relations is primarily one of common sense. There appears to be little reason for a high school principal needing to warp his way of life in order to meet the social standards of a school administrator, in fact, if it is necessary to change his way of life possibly he ought also to change his profession! True, we are the servants of the public, but the public rightly demands that we be normal, natural, contributing parts of the same public.

A little differing phase of the need for education in the directors of community relations may be found in an extensive need for knowledge about adolescent psychology. A high school administrator may well be a good psychiatrist. Certainly he needs to deal, not only with the challenging mental deficiencies of young people, he needs also to deal with the challenging mental superiorities of young people. Community relations are not limited to dealings with parents. The high school principal has a community relations problem and a job right in his own student body. Guidance for youth will assume a more effective knowledge when there is a thorough understanding of the adolescent mind. Such knowledge needed in our school community relations reveals again a very great demand for extensive formal education in the field of psychology. Woefully lacking are some of the present teacher-training programs and administrative-training programs in our colleges wherein they do not make provision for extensive education in the area of psychology. We

could go on and talk about varying other factors of community relations. Suffice it to say that our entire educational program will achieve more, will receive a greater justifiable support, and produce a better citizen for tomorrow when we seriously consider adequate community relations in its many phases as the cornerstone upon which we shall build a general support for the entire educational program.

What Training and Experience Standards for the Secondary School Principal?

JOHN RUF I

Personal Qualifications in Professional Preparation

ANYONE who questions the necessity for training and experience standards for secondary-school principals needs only to examine the report now made available by Chairman D. H. Eikenberry and his committee. This report¹ is now available for your use. Since some of you have not yet had an opportunity to study it, I should like to introduce my remarks by briefly citing three sections of Chapter I.

1. Forty-seven states now have certification programs for their secondary school principals and these states issue a total of 108 types of certificates. Eighteen states require special principal's certificates; eleven seek to insure proficiency through general administrative certificates; five states require teachers certificates plus some other training while thirteen merely expect the principal to possess credentials for teaching.
2. The study reveals comparable diversity with respect to academic and professional requirements for the various degrees and the amounts and types of experience demanded. For example, eleven types of certificates demand previous administrative experience; thirty-six make experience optional; thirty-eight require a teaching background, and twenty-three have no experience requirement.
3. As one would expect, the area of general requirements (character, health, minimum age, and citizenship) is characterized by comparable diversity and disagreement.

In short, the standards for secondary school principals which prevail within the forty-eight states today reflect extreme disagreement and confusion and emphasize the imperative need for the study and report here under consideration. The action of the Association's Executive Committee in initiating this study in 1945 was therefore most appropriate and timely. Clearly, a study such as this was badly needed. The professional stature of Dr. Eikenberry and his co-workers warranted high expectations. We confidently anticipated a sound, scholarly, forward-looking report and this the Committee has produced. It well may prove to be a long step forward in the professionalization of the secondary-school principal.

¹ *Training and Experience Standards for Principals of Secondary Schools*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1951. 64 pp., \$1.00.

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This sixty-two page report is now available for distribution. It deserves careful study by higher institutions which presume to prepare principals, by regional accrediting agencies concerned with school standards, and last but certainly not least by secondary-school principals, whether they be neophytes wanting guidance or veterans needing stimulation. The Committee has earned our sincere thanks. Its report has genuine merit and it deserves to be studied and used.

Time limitations prevent detailed discussion of the entire report. I shall instead comment briefly on two sections which have special interest for me.

PERSONAL QUALIFICATIONS

Chapter II dealing with personal qualifications suggests a number of attributes which should characterize the competent secondary school leader. I am gratified that the first here stressed is, in the words of the report, "a compelling philosophy of education."

I have no patience with those who disparage, decry, or neglect philosophy as part of an administrator's equipment. From my point of view it is indispensable. The ability to organize, the skill to administer, and the talent to direct may have little value unless they are guided by a sound philosophy of life and of education.

"A sound supervisory program of education," declares the Eighth Year Book of the Department of Superintendence, "must be based upon a sound philosophy of education." As Samuel S. Drury put it so effectively in his book *Schoolmastering*, "The teacher must have a philosophy, else he becomes a merely conscientious chore man, the scholar must know why, else he becomes a docile drudge." A veteran observer of secondary schools recently said to me, "In my visits to high schools in some twenty states I have found many principals who evidently have given much thought to problems of school organization and management. They seemed to have achieved considerable proficiency in those areas. But when I questioned them and their staffs on the ultimate objectives of their programs I frequently encountered disagreement, confusion, and, in some cases, unconcern."

My own experiences and observations tend to support this testimony. After more than a decade of painstaking preparation the North Central Association is now attempting to shift its accrediting emphasis from a "quantitative" to a "qualitative" basis. In 1948 as part of its procedure, the Commission on Secondary Schools required that each of its more than 3,000 member high schools evaluate its program in terms of Criterion I of the Evaluative Criteria. This new procedure was warmly endorsed by many of the school executives concerned; others among the brethren viewed it with annoyance, irritation, resentment, and even contempt, and some angrily declared they would withdraw from Association membership rather than submit themselves and their schools to this critical self-examination. As a result of this opposition, the Commission modified its requirements and the section of the self-study which was set up for the next year was made optional.

How can we account for the opposition of these principals to this new procedure? There are, I think, three explanations:

First: Admittedly they and their staffs are extremely busy individuals, many of whom were carrying an excessive load of responsibilities and duties, and quite understandably were very reluctant to assume any added duties or burdens. *Second:* The self-study did involve some record analysis and some investigation and because it was designed to stimulate professional growth it called for real leadership by the principal and sympathetic co-operation and participation by the staff. Judged by the results in some schools, the administrative leadership was inept and the staff reaction apathetic.

Third: It is interesting to note that the section of the self-study outline that evidently caused the most trouble was a brief section labelled "The Educational Philosophy of this School." Each school was urged to make a general statement of its philosophy and to indicate its institutional objectives. As a state chairman and a member of the Commission on Secondary Schools the writer officially checked approximately two hundred of these reports. If, in the cases of scores of these schools, their principals and staffs and their programs were guided by what Dr. Eikenberry's Committee calls "a compelling philosophy," their reports signally failed to reveal it. In many of these reports this section was so fragmentary as to be practically valueless; in scores of others it was entirely omitted.

The writer's general observations plus this more objective evidence therefore support the conclusion so trenchantly stated on this point by Professor Thomas H. Briggs. You will recall he said, "School people are limited in competence not so much in the details of their jobs as in a large comprehension of their significance. In other words, like the lay public they need more than anything else an understanding of what education is for, of the ends it is supported to achieve." Dr. Briggs further insists, "Every principal and every teacher should seek to clarify his own mind as to the ideals of the society in which he lives and then to develop for himself, using whatever aids are available, a philosophy that is appropriate."

Dr. Eikenberry's Committee strongly supports this point of view. The Committee stresses the importance of a clear conception of the role of the secondary school and argues that our leaders would have an "action philosophy" based upon democratic principles. The Committee's clear cut position should aid materially in strengthening this phase of the principal's preparation.

As we would expect, the section of the Committee report dealing with personal traits of the principal mentions character, maturity, physical and mental health, and similar attributes. It specifically emphasizes "courage and independence." I am especially gratified to observe this. These are troublous times. Our schools and their leaders operate under all sorts of pressures, some of which are both powerful and vicious. Effective educational leadership these days calls for courage of a very high order and at least some critics of our high schools allege that their administrative officers lack this quality. "I remember eight principals," says a veteran high school teacher of Minneapolis in a recent issue of *The Clearing House*, "and of the eight, six were notable for lack of courage." She then proceeds to argue that "the quality administrators most need and most frequently lack—is courage." I refuse to be-

lieve that this teacher's experience is typical and I deny the validity of her sweeping indictment. You and I will promptly agree, however, that a position of leadership in a secondary school these days is no place for a "Pedagogical Pantywaist" or a "Timorous Tremblechin." The job is tough and hazardous. It involves risks and Caspar Milquetoast might as well not apply.

In his *Marks of Educated Men*, Bertrand Russell suggests several attributes he considers essential. Among these, he places heavy emphasis on courage. Certainly those who would aspire to lead our educational institutions must have a full measure of gameness, fortitude, staying power, and sheer nerve. If you question this statement, you can quickly resolve your doubt by conferring briefly with Willard Goslin, Ex-Superintendent of the Pasadena Public Schools, and Harold Moore, Ex-Superintendent of Kansas City, Missouri, Public Schools, and scores of others who have waged heroic battles, but have temporarily, at least, taken their lickings. (I hasten to add that I have no doubt each will very promptly land on his feet, so to speak.) The high courage demonstrated by these men and many others constitutes a very bright chapter in the story of American educational leadership and we may well salute these valiant co-workers. It is the tragic truth, however, that in far too many instances modern school administration seems to be characterized by apprehensiveness, timidity, and faint-heartedness. In this connection, I wish that every secondary school principal in America would read William G. Carr's potent monograph entitled *Educational Leadership in This Emergency*. Here is a heartening statement on the responsibility of leadership in times of crisis. "... leadership is always dangerous," claims Dr. Carr. "Taking chances is its business, conflict its daily bread! When all is orderly and peaceful, when no great issues divide public opinion or ruffle the calm course of events, there is no place of consequence for leadership, and that quality is exercised, if at all, on relatively insignificant matters of detail. But when traditions collapse, when the whirlwinds of violence sweep the earth, when new pathways for effort are to be cleared, when men's minds are shaken by doubt and darkened by despair, then it is that genuine leadership can arise and flourish."

Dr. Carr further asserts that "it is the business of leadership to be concerned with controversial matters" and he solemnly warns us that "he who refuses to face such questions as these has abdicated his responsibilities as a leader. He may keep the title, he may still be a head man, he may still receive the highest salary in the school system, he may occupy positions of honor in the academic procession; but he is not a leader." Our Association is to be congratulated on the challenge of this section of its Committee's report.

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION

Because today's program has been designed primarily for secondary school principals I have devoted a major portion of my time to their personal attributes, equipment, and responsibilities. This does not mean I regard lightly the section of the Committee report dealing with professional preparation.

The Committee evidently considered this highly important; in any event Chapter V, which treats it, is the longest in the entire report.

If we ever accepted the notion "that the competent principal is born" we have long since discarded it. Admittedly the personal qualities requisite for success are an indispensable part of his equipment and if he does not possess or cannot develop them he should not enter this field of work. So important are these attributes that if accrediting agencies and graduate schools can devise more valid means of screening out their personally incompetent and inept they will have rendered a badly needed service. As pointed out by Edmonson, Roemer, and Bacon, "Too many who fall short of most of the native requirements for administrative work are trying to prepare themselves for principalships through professional courses. It should be emphasized that the mere acquisition of professional information does not guarantee success in the field of administration. Both the personal qualities and the professional training are needed." Furthermore, the need for specific professional training is now established and widely accepted.

Colleges and universities which presume to provide the professional preparation which is now demanded assume grave responsibilities which, in my sober judgment, they have in many cases failed to discharge competently. This statement is made with considerable humility because, since deserting an administrative career, I have worked and am working in a graduate school which has turned out a good many principals; at any rate, they left with our credentials and our blessing. Investigation of their subsequent field work has in entirely too many cases reflected adversely on their preparation. To put it bluntly, the courses that they had taken and the training they had undergone had not guaranteed their proficiency. Not by any means! In far too many instances, the courses in administration, supervision, curriculum revision, and in other areas offered by me and my colleagues evidently had been sterile and professionally profitless. I have been brutally frank in discussing the responsibilities of the principalship and the weaknesses too frequently exhibited by principals. Let me be equally frank in saying that we who provide programs of principal preparation have an equally heavy responsibility and we have far too frequently dismally failed to do well the job entrusted to us. The Committee report re-emphasizes the tremendous importance of our job and the suggestions contained therein will materially assist us in our efforts to improve our work. We simply dare not neglect its suggestions and its clear implications!

Group VII—Parlor E

CHAIRMAN: *W. R. Fugitt*, Executive Secretary, West Virginia High School Athletic Association, Beckley, West Virginia

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

John Thors, Jr., Principal, Pontiac Senior High School, Pontiac, Michigan

H. L. Wesner, Principal, Ela-Vernon Consolidated High School, Lake Zurich, Illinois

Standards and Administrative Policies for the Interscholastic Athletic Program

CLAUDE L. REEVES

WHILE I appreciate the privilege of speaking to you on the general subject of Standards and Administrative Policies for the Interscholastic Athletic Program, I know quite well that your particular and peculiar situation is different from ours, and what we believe and do may be of little interest and value to you. I am forced to talk about "our" program because it is the only one with which I am completely familiar.

With this I am sure we all agree, interscholastic competition, with the great interest on the part of school and community, brings many problems which in themselves can cause the destruction of all that is fine in the program if not handled strongly, fairly, and consistently. Every high school administrator has had to cope with such problems, and has attempted to arrive at a solution which would be educationally sound and protect the boys who were participating in the sport in question. Such decisions are often difficult, and in many cases result in the school administrator standing alone against outside interests which would exploit youth and promote the interests of the few.

The individual administrator and the individual school are incapable of withstanding local pressures and snap judgments for long unless group support is given. In my city we believe that a reasonably sound athletic program has resulted from group planning and group support.

We have in the Los Angeles City School System thirty-five senior high schools competing in a full athletic program. These schools are divided into five leagues. In making up the leagues geography and size of schools are the determining factors. We have two special boys' schools with a limited program. These schools free lance—games are arranged through the central athletic office.

The athletic program of our school system is under the direction and control of the Athletic Policy-Determining Committee. The voting members are seven senior high school principals and three boys' vice-principals. Other members of the Committee, but without vote, are:

Claude L. Reeves is Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Senior High Schools, Los Angeles City Schools, Los Angeles, California.

The President of the Physical Education Department Heads Association
The Director of Health and Physical Education
The Assistant Superintendent of Senior High Schools
The Supervisor of Athletics

The Supervisor of Athletics serves as Secretary of the Committee and as Commissioner of Athletics. This Committee is recognized by the Superintendent and by the Board of Education as the policy and control board for all athletics in the system.

The Los Angeles Senior High Schools are members of the California Interscholastic Federation. As a body they constitute one section in the State Federation. The Policy-Determining Committee is the governing board for that section, and is answerable to the Federation for all of its acts.

Two members of the Committee are appointed to sit on the State Board. Thus we see that the Athletic Policy-Determining Committee serves in a dual capacity; it is appointed by and is answerable to the Senior High School Principals' Association for Los Angeles City athletic policies, while at the same time it serves as the control board for the Los Angeles Section of the California Interscholastic Federation.

Our relation to the State Federation is somewhat comparable to the relation of a state to the Federal government. We must operate within the framework of the state constitution, and may not make rules and regulations inconsistent with the rules and regulations of the C.I.F. We may operate under more but not less stringent rules than those established by the State Federation.

The following is offered as an example: The State Federation has nothing to say about the number of sports in which a boy may compete in any one year. The Los Angeles rules declare, "Students who participate in football may not participate in basketball during the current school year."

There are two reasons for this rule. In our setup both football and basketball are scheduled in the fall semester. Basketball practice starts several weeks before the close of the football season. The league games in basketball are designed to begin at the close of the football season. Aside from the fact it would be very difficult for a boy to get himself ready for any great amount of basketball play, we believe there are in our large high schools plenty of boys willing and anxious to play. We believe our rule increases student participation. In addition, we are of the opinion that one major sport per semester is enough for most high school boys.

Membership in the State Federation is of great advantage to us. The C.I.F. is an incorporated body. Schools are not forced to belong, but once membership is accepted, member schools must operate within the rules of the Federation. It is very important to us, who live under the shadow of all the pressures a great city can muster, to be able to fall back on the protection of an association, recognized by law, as having the right and the authority to make any reasonable rule or regulation governing high school athletics in California.

Furthermore, the Policy-Determining Committee of the Los Angeles City High School District is in reality a subcommittee of the State Federation, and all rules and regulations made by it, which are consistent with state policy, are in reality rules of the state association.

I have met but few high school principals who do not believe in a sound program of athletics; yet all are aware of the forces and pressures that, if not resisted, would soon take away from the school the authority and control of this very worth-while part of education.

We have the same interests and groups; we operate under the same pressures. We cannot say that we have not at times had to compromise, yet we have been able to hold the line in all situations where the well-being of boys and the program are concerned. I am convinced this is due almost entirely to the fact that the Board of Education and Superintendent recognize the Policy-Determining Committee as our governing board in all matters pertaining to interscholastic athletics. They recognize the fact that our schools are a part of the state association, and that they cannot overrule the local committee without ordering us out of the state association. This, I am quite sure, will never do.

Nothing I have said here is to be interpreted to mean that the Policy-Determining Committee works independently of the Superintendent and his staff. Athletics are a vital part of public relations as well as being a recognized subdivision of education. As a corollary of what I have said above, our program works because the Athletic Policy-Determining Committee works with the Superintendent, and the Superintendent works with and through the Committee. The Assistant Superintendent in charge of Senior High Schools sits on the Committee. It is his job to serve as a liaison officer between the Committee and the Superintendent. From time to time the Policy-Determining Committee meets with the Superintendent, either by invitation from him or by request from the Committee. Any contemplated new policy, or any basic alteration of policy, is discussed with the Superintendent before adoption. In this way we not only maintain harmony within the family, but have united support if and when we meet outside opposition and resistance.

Let us look briefly at some of the pressures we have been able to overcome as a result of our state and city control.

1. *Excessive travel*

This topic constitutes a problem in many parts of the United States. The pressure comes from the local school that wants to travel, either for publicity purposes or for the purpose of making money. In many communities there may be outside organized pressure, so strong as to make resistance almost impossible. We do not face this problem because the State Federation says, "No school belonging to the California Interscholastic Federation shall compete with any school outside the jurisdiction of the Federation without the consent of the Council. A school disregarding this rule shall be debarred from participation in that sport during the following season."

This rule actually means that member schools must confine their competition to other member schools. Should a school ignore the rule and travel out-

side the jurisdiction of the Federation all other member schools would be prohibited from scheduling games with the guilty school. Briefly stated, the result is that we do not face the problem of travel.

2. *All-Star Events*

There was a time in our city when All-Star post-season events, in which high school students were invited to participate, were quite common. Recently the Chamber of Commerce of a large California city attempted to arrange a home-and-home All-Star game of this nature. To meet this problem the State Federation has declared, "Any student taking part in an unsanctioned All-Star contest or similar contest shall be debarred from all C.I.F. athletic contests."

3. *Post-Season Contest*

Both the state association and the Los Angeles City Policy-Determining Committee have rules designed to keep all post-season contests and playoffs under control. For many years football in the Los Angeles High School District ended with the conclusion of the regular dual season. Four years ago playoff games for city championship were re-established. Now we again have some evidence that coaches and principals favor the return to the no playoff program. We have never had sectional or state playoff games in any sport, except track. We have for the past several years participated in the state track meet.

4. *Out-of-State Contests*

California is quite isolated from the rest of the country. To compete outside the state, except schools near the Oregon, Nevada, or Arizona borders, is unnecessary. The C.I.F. recognizes certain schools in states near the California line as being C.I.F. approved schools. Our own rules declare, "No school club, team, or any athletic organization representing the Los Angeles City Schools shall be permitted to leave the state of California for any contest, tour, or exhibition."

Note—This does not apply to certain Arizona cities approved for competition by the State Federation.

5. *Over-emphasis—Student Behavior*

To help keep athletic contests in their proper relationship the general rules of our Committee declare, "No organized rally shall be held at a high school on the day of an athletic contest. The holding of an off-campus rally, demonstration, or other activity associated with the interscholastic athletic program is prohibited. Night rallies, demonstrations, and bonfires are prohibited."

6. *District Boundaries—Proselyting*

Both state and Los Angeles City rules declare that a boy, in order to be eligible, must attend school in the district of residence. An exception can be made if the student obtains a permit from the principal of his home district. We long ago found that boys, parents, and sometimes coaches, brought great pressure for athletic permits. If the principal refused, the permit was often granted by a superintendent or Board member. To avoid, or at least hold down, athletic permits, there is now stamped upon all permits so granted the

statement, "This is an educational permit only. It does not carry athletic privileges." To further tighten the above, the Committee declares that any boy who falsifies his address shall be returned to his school of residence, and he shall be declared ineligible for a period of one year. All games in which he has participated are forfeited.

There was a time in our athletic history when fights and disorderly conduct, following athletic games and contests, were quite common. Several years ago all schools were notified that such conduct would not be tolerated. Forfeiture of games, the forced severance of athletic relations between the schools involved, and partial and complete suspension from athletic competition have resulted from this order. As a result of the actions taken by the Policy-Determining Committee great pressure at times has been brought to bear upon the Superintendent and the Board of Education. Student bodies, alumni groups, parents, and interested organizations have attempted to have the Committee's decision set aside or modified. In fairness and in honor to the Superintendent and the Board may I say that in no single instance has there been any serious effort to have the Policy-Determining Committee soften or alter its decision.

The Athletic Policy-Determining Committee has been the governing board for the interscholastic program for a period of thirteen years. An evaluation of accomplishments during the period would find:

1. A generally recognized constitutional body charged with athletic policy and control.
2. The elimination of politics and influential pressure in cases of eligibility and suspension.
3. Emphasis on the athletic program as a phase of the educational program rather than as a spectacle to be promoted.
4. The control of the athletic program has been kept in the hands of certified personnel.
5. Codified set of rules and regulations, "The Brown Book," has been created.
6. Acts of rowdiness, which threatened to endanger the interscholastic athletics program, have been practically eliminated.
7. Serves as a promotional agency for city-wide contests.
8. Brought about better planning and organization of athletics on a city-wide basis.

SOURCES OF REVENUE

In the few remaining minutes at my disposal I would like to tell you of the ways in which the Athletic Policy-Determining Committee makes and obtains money to aid certain of our poor, small, or new schools.

In our school system the Board of Education pays the salary of the coach. All other expenses of the athletic program must be borne by the school's student body. Rising costs have made a full athletic program beyond the reach of some of our schools. To help equalize opportunities the Policy-Determining Committee, with the approval of the principals, engages in certain activities that bring several thousand dollars each year into their central fund.

1. *The Milk Bowl Game*

Each year at the conclusion of the regular football season the Athletic Policy-Determining Committee and the Tenth District Congress of Parents

and Teachers stage in the Los Angeles Coliseum a football, band, and drill team carnival. The net proceeds of this event are divided between the Policy-Determining Committee and the P.T.A.

2. *Post-season Games*

Schools participating in athletic play-off games are permitted to keep the money obtained from the sale of all student tickets at the school. All proceeds at the gate, over and above expenses, go to the Treasurer of the Athletic Policy-Determining Committee.

3. *City Track Finals*

In our city the track finals are held at night, and in conjunction with the Olympic Committee Invitational meet. A share of the net proceeds goes to the Policy-Determining Committee.

These incomes are used by the Committee in sponsoring certain city-wide tournaments, and in making gifts to schools which would otherwise be unable to properly equip and field athletic teams.

This problem of school finances is getting yearly more difficult. During the school year 1948-49 the majority of our senior high schools lost money on their athletic programs. During this same year we experimented with a partial night program in football and basketball. Lack of sufficient lighted fields and bleacher room required us in many instances to travel. This, plus the competition high school games encounter in a large city, made the experiment questionable.

This year we are continuing with a part night, part daytime program. There is some evidence that the over-all results are going to be better. If so, it will be due largely to the fact that the Policy-Determining Committee has sharpened its pencil and has driven down the cost of staging the games.

I do not imply that we have solved all the problems common to the high school athletic program. Problems in education are never solved; we simply approximate their solution. I do contend we have a sound organizational setup, and that we have a group of experienced, professional men giving hundreds of hours each year to a program dedicated to the development and enjoyment of boys and girls.

Standards and Administrative Policies for the Interscholastic Athletic Program

JOHN K. ARCHER

WE have come a long way in interscholastic athletics. This was the sense of the discussion about Standards for Athletics at our Principals Convention at Kansas City a year ago. Many illustrations were given to empha-

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size our progress in the development of a sane high school sports program. The abuses and inequities that once existed have been nearly wiped out. It's true that we still need to combat those who would win at all costs, those who have a misguided local pride, those who try to second-guess the coach, those who would use our games for their own profit.¹

We have a safeguard to protect our students, our school authorities, and the good name of our schools. This safeguard is the set of standards which we accept as our guide in the administration of athletics. These standards have been developed over the years by the local school, by agreement among neighboring schools, by democratic process in our state athletic associations. Our National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations has made an outstanding contribution to our cause through the strength it has given to these efforts in the forty-six member states. Now the National Association of Secondary-School Principals has joined with the National Federation and the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation to secure recognition of our goals.

THE JOINT COMMITTEE

Our three organizations in 1949 appointed a Joint Committee on Standards for Interscholastic Athletics.² Six members from each of the three associations and the Executive Secretaries, Paul E. Elicker, Carl A. Troester, and H. V. Porter, make up the nation-wide committee of twenty-one. Working by correspondence and through sub-committees, we have sought to bring together all that is good in existing standards for interschool sports. Our report at the 1950 meeting in Kansas City was approved by the Executive Committee of our National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Similar approval was enacted and encouragement given at the annual meeting of the National Federation in Santa Monica, California, and at the 1950 Dallas, Texas, meeting of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. We conceive our task to be one of securing universal acceptance of our ideals for high school athletics. We're engaged in an important educational campaign, a constructive public-relations program, a co-operative endeavor toward understanding.

OUR STANDARDS

These standards compiled by the Joint Committee are based on a three-fold philosophy for athletics which is expressed in our Guiding Policies:³ and are a restatement of the Ten Cardinal Athletic Principles.⁴

1. Athletics are to be an integral part of the secondary-school program and should receive financial support from tax funds on the same basis as other recognized parts of the total educational program. As a part of the curriculum, high school sports are to be conducted by secondary-school authorities, and all instruction provided by competent, qualified, and accredited teachers so that desirable educational aims may be achieved.

¹ "Toward Sane Athletic" Programs. *NEA Journal*, XXXIX, May, 1950, p. 348.

² *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXXIII, May, 1949, pp. 185-195.

³ *Ibid.*, XXXIV, March, 1950, p. 210.

⁴ Cardinal Athletic Principles, *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, XVIII, September, 1947.

2. Athletics are for the benefit of all youth. The aim is maximum participation—a sport for every one and every one in a sport—in a well-balanced intramural and interscholastic program with emphasis on safe and healthful standards of competition.

3. Athletics are to be conducted under rules which provide for equitable competition, sportsmanship, fair play, health, and safety. High school sports are for amateurs who are bona fide undergraduate high school students. These youth must be protected from exploitation and the dangers of professionalism. Pre-season, post-season, post-schedule, all-star games or similar types of promotions are not consistent with this principle. A full understanding of the need for observance of local, league, sectional, state, and national standards in athletics should be developed.

The fourteen Major Interpretations based on these guiding policies are the standards for which we are working. These fourteen statements place our three organizations on record in full support of the rules and regulations of our state athletic associations and our National Federation. Emphasis is given to precautions for health and safety, provisions for fair competition under tried and tested rules of eligibility, careful administration of inter-state contests. Positive disapproval of promotions which exploit our boys, of any aspects of professionalism, or of solicitation devices is expressed. These standards should serve as a protection against abuses and injustices detrimental to the best interests of our high school students.

NEXT STEPS

The planning committee of our Joint Committee met in Washington, D. C., on December 4, 1950, to consider our next steps. Our standards were reconsidered and sub-committees were appointed to work on the improvement and refinement of our fourteen points. We felt, for instance, that we should include a strong statement that no boy should participate until after an adequate physical examination; and that in games where injuries may occur a physician should be in attendance.

We agreed to increase our efforts toward the better understanding of our standards through periodicals and publications, through classes in teacher-training institutions, through releases to sports writers and sportscasters. We hope to secure support and endorsement of our standards by the American Association of School Administrators, the National Association of School Boards, the National Council of Chief State School Officers, the American Medical Association, the American School Health Association, the National Congress of Parents, and Teachers, the National Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development.

COMMERCIALISM

The assignment to the National Federation sub-committee was to formulate an additional standard to oppose attempts to commercialize high school sports. This sub-committee met in Mobile, Alabama, on December 29, 1950, to consider reports that various companies are attempting to use the schools and the prestige of the players to help sell their products. No school as a tax-supported institution should be implicated as a means of merchandising for private profit we all know. Usually the scheme is in the form of awards

from an agency which we'll call the "Continental Contrivance Company," awards which serve as insidious advertising for the "Clever Clean-Cut Contrivances." This standard, therefore, was formulated to be recommended to the Joint Committee:

No awards should be accepted by a boy or by a school from any commercial organization. All athletic awards should (a) be under the control of the administrative head of the school, (b) emblematic in nature and reasonable in cost, (c) free from all advertising or commercial promotion, either direct or implied.

SOLICITATION

The athletic standard which provoked the most discussion at our Kansas City meeting last year dealt with solicitation of athletes by higher institutions. The feeling was very evident that this statement should be strengthened. As amended our standard No. 10 states:

The solicitation of athletes through try-outs and competitive bidding by higher institutions is unethical, unprofessional, and psychologically harmful to the boy. It destroys the amateur nature of athletics, tends to commercialize the individual and the program, the use of athletic skill for gain, and takes an unfair and unjust advantage of competitors.

The prevention of solicitation practices which sometimes involves try-out trips by air travel is a real problem. We have no intent to hinder the usual guidance procedures of any high school, but the evils of proselyting are recognized. Now that colleges have failed to uphold their so-called sanity code this becomes a more immediate cause for concern. This is the reason that our agreement between our National Federation and organized professional baseball has not been renewed. Professional baseball authorities object to the continuance of the plan, whereby no boy may be signed as a professional player until after his class has graduated from high school, as long as the colleges recruit promising performers still in school. This is unfair competition, they say. We can, however, count on a reaffirmation of the baseball agreement, if we can eliminate solicitation by colleges.

What can the high schools do to implement Standard No. 10 on solicitation? School authorities, administrators and coaches, must be willing to prevent these unfair practices. Appeals should be made to the institutions which are guilty of violation of this standard. Schools should be unwilling to recommend colleges which are committing this malpractice. Attempts to secure the co-operation of the National Collegiate Athletic Association might be made. We need an enforceable agreement with all higher institutions. As a suggestion for consideration this contract might be:

No higher institution is to offer an award, "scholarship," or other inducement based solely on the athletic skill or performance of a high school boy until after he had been graduated and made a free choice of the institution wherein he wishes to continue his education.

OUR CHALLENGE

We now face a national emergency. The athletic program in our schools will be affected by measures necessary for national defense in our conflict against totalitarianism. Our national well-being depends in a large measure

upon the physical fitness and teamwork developed in our intramural and interscholastic sports. The maintenance of our athletic program depends upon these standards for athletics, which are as important in war-time as in peacetime, since they have been democratically developed in the public interest.

Your Joint Committee needs the co-operation of all members of our three national associations and the support of the members of as many of the other educational organizations as may be obtained. We can't carry the ball alone in our endeavor to uphold these principles. By the joining together of so many who are convinced of the correctness of our creed for the protection of high school athletics, the sheer weight of opinion should be an effective force to accomplish our program. We can all help to carry the word until we have a widespread understanding of our standards.

Group VIII—Parlor F

CHAIRMAN: *R. Wilfred Kelsey*, Secretary, Committee on Family Financial Security Education, New York

INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

Mary C. Gillies, Principal, Flower Technical High School, Chicago

Harry M. Rice, Principal, Bloomfield Senior High School, Bloomfield, New Jersey

Ways of Including Education for Family Financial Security

MARY H. CARTER

AS the classroom teacher studies the needs and problems of the boys and girls in his classes, he is increasingly aware of the tensions and the strains and stresses developing from unstable, economic conditions at home. Lack of provision for illness, failure to provide for emergencies or unemployment, improvident spending, lack of foresight in regard to college education, failure to plan co-operatively and to meet fluctuating economic conditions lead to a climate in the home that causes emotional upsets on the part of many adolescents. This situation is by no means limited to families in the lower economic brackets; some of the most serious problems are evident in what seems to be the most privileged homes established by very intelligent parents.

Although high school students may not be aware of the need for curricular experiences that will help them weather changing economic conditions and establish stable, secure homes, they are often suddenly and rudely awakened after they have left the sheltered comfort and protection of their parents' home and quickly blame both parents and school for not preparing them to face reality. One school with which I am acquainted annually sends follow-up questionnaires to those students who graduated one, five, and ten years ago. The question which asks the graduates to indicate helpful curricular experiences that *should* have been included during their high school years

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always provides interesting answers. Of course, there are those that think grammar is the panacea for all ills, but a large number realistically and practically indicate such areas as the following:

1. Ways of financing a home (One lad indicated that he almost lost a down payment because of being too "gullible," and not knowing the "ropes").
2. How to figure out income tax, etc.
3. Budgeting (Girls especially indicated this area).
4. Another girl who was a widow with two small children was critical because she and her deceased husband had been taught nothing about insurance and saving for emergencies.
5. Commercial law.
6. A newlywed who had been seriously injured in an accident regretted that the school had not given her information about hospitalization and accident insurance.
7. Banking regulations and use of checks seem important to others.
8. Methods of sound borrowing are desirable to some.
9. Sound investments are a real problem for others.

The school cannot be expected to anticipate and provide experiences for all situations that the student will meet in adult life but certain basic skills, understandings and attitudes can be developed that will enable students to manage their personal finances more sensibly, to be more considerate and thoughtful members of the family, and eventually to establish a family that is financially secure and stable.

Even in the grades an attitude of thrift and a limited knowledge of buying and saving can be developed. From their early years children benefit from being a part of the family council and understanding problems of household management and their responsibility as part of the family unit. But we shall deal today with ways of meeting these needs on the secondary school level. First, let me hasten to say that I do not advocate the addition of a new course on family financial security. In the high school we are prone to adopt too many discrete, unrelated courses quickly when a fad is being pushed or an important area which has long been neglected suddenly receives attention. Instead, from the seventh grade through the twelfth desirable experiences or units might be provided in a variety of subjects.

Before trying to structure phases of family security education into the curriculum, let us consider further some of the questions important to young people, questions for which they are seeking answers now or will seek them in the future. Why is John's allowance smaller than Tom's? Why can his best friend's family maintain a higher standard of living than his mother and dad? Why do people budget and what factors should be considered? How can you make a budget "fit"? What are sources of income? What are the advantages and disadvantages of cash purchases and installment buying? Is it more advantageous to buy or rent a house? What factors are involved in purchasing and financing a house? What protection is available against risks involved in home ownership. How large should savings be before a couple marries? Why and how much should an individual of a family save? What types of savings institutions serve the public? How can the father protect the family against illness, emergencies, and death? How does the

government help the individual or family to secure financial security? What are different ways of investing money?

Answers to these and similar questions can be provided in many subjects and on a variety of grade levels. There is no single, perfect pattern that will apply to all communities. Local conditions, needs, and abilities of the students, goals and plans for the future will all play an important part in determining where these experiences will be placed and how they will be developed. For example, a rural community in which co-operatives play an important role may pose problems far different from those existing in a rich suburban town. Although work on such topics as income tax, hospitalization, and social security may often be most appropriate for seniors who are ready to go out into the world and assume adult responsibilities, a school having a large number of leavers at the end of ninth or tenth grades may find it advantageous to give particular emphasis to these aspects of financial security at the end of junior high school.

The many and varied topics that must be considered if our boys and girls are to develop an understanding of the factors involved in family financial security can be included in a variety of subjects. Courses in social studies, psychology, economics, business education, mathematics, home economics, consumer education, social living and family relationships are some of the more obvious places. Again there is no single "best" spot. Frequently the interests, background, and personality of the teacher are the determining factors. Such a program has little chance of success if it is thrust upon a teachers who is not interested and not inclined and willing to develop the background needed.

This past summer at the Family Financial Security Workshop conducted at the University of Pennsylvania a number of teachers developed units to be used in their school when they returned home. For example, the mathematics group prepared materials at the 8th, 9th, and 12th grade levels—starting with a pupil's allowance, his savings accounts, insurance policies, and government bonds. They worked out ways of assisting pupils to understand how their families meet financial obligations and of helping them participate in family planning. Problems that were developed included ways of acquiring the family income, distributing and investing it wisely, caring for securities, borrowing and sharing.

The business education group felt that in their particular situations the following topics on personal finance might be developed; kinds and sources of money; community financial services such as banking, insurance, investment; aspects of managing income including money management, borrowing; wills and trusts.

The home economics teachers developed a series of experiences that would answer the following questions:

1. What are the sources of family income in our community?
2. What are the factors that determine our family's way of living?
3. What are the various items of expense that all families have to meet?

4. How can the family plan a workable budget?
5. Why is it helpful to keep a record of all expenditures?
6. How can the family plan together for financial security?
7. How can the family get the most satisfaction from its income?
8. How can the family know when it is spending its income wisely?
9. How can the family use its savings to achieve greater security?

The supervisor of home and family education in Detroit developed an interesting unit on partnership in family financial security to be included in the latter part of a course in Family Living, an inter-departmental course taught by 40 teachers from various departments in 18 high schools. In this unit the supervisor endeavored to encourage the utilization of community resources in developing a concept of family financial security as a problem of relationships. The meaning and the conditions of the marriage partnership, the contributions of each partner in using money, the cost of a honeymoon, establishing a home, providing for immediate dependents, participating in community financing as well as sharing responsibility for children were areas in which curricular experiences were developed.

Time will not permit detailed suggestions for the field of social studies. Let me merely say that the expanding concept of social studies in the secondary school with an emphasis on social and adult living permits the inclusion of many of the topics suggested. It also provides a rich opportunity for the development of integrated units with other departments. For example, the role of the Government in providing family financial security has been developed co-operatively by the mathematics and social studies departments in one school with a great degree of success. In the common learnings or core programs there are many rich opportunities for including experiences of the type I have suggested—experiences that should be included in any program of Life Adjustment Education.

Many teachers feel that lack of materials presents an insurmountable hurdle. True, there probably is no one single text that is adequate and there should not be. Much material can be obtained, however, from sections of texts on mathematics, economics, consumer education, business education, social studies, and family relationships. One of the most prolific sources of materials is the Institute of Life Insurance which through its Educational Division makes available free of charge or at small cost many helpful pamphlets for teachers and pupils. At the end of the meeting you may want to examine samples which which are on display here. I particularly want to recommend to you the pamphlet entitled "Teaching Aids for Financial Security Education" in which are listed very useful booklets, charts, film strips, and motion pictures. As a result of careful study and constructive criticism by those who are in the field of education these materials have been soundly prepared and serve a very useful purpose. The United States Treasury Department, Federal Reserve Bank, Securities Exchange Commission, and other governmental agencies, American Bankers Association, Public Affairs Pamphlets, popular and professional magazines, Association of Better Business Bureaus are some of the sources that provide helpful printed materials for

a classroom library. Excellent moving pictures and slide films may be obtained from Coronet, Castle Films, Association Films, Encyclopedia Britannica Films, insurance companies, banks, and many other business organizations on a purchase or loan basis.

In order to make the curricular experiences meaningful it is imperative that the teacher not only use a variety of materials but that he employ a variety of teaching techniques and develop a diversity of activities. The members of the Financial Security Workshop spent a large portion of their time in developing introductory, developmental, and culminating activities to meet the varying needs, interests, and abilities of many grade levels—activities that involved not merely the printed page but dramatizations, field trips, interviews, panel discussions, graphic representations, and other audio-visual materials. A few examples will serve to show some of the possibilities.

1. It is estimated that the average installment purchases per family amount to \$150 per year. In order that students may realize the cost, advantages and disadvantages of installment buying they can collect advertisements or visit department stores to see the difference in price between standard articles bought on a cash and a credit basis and to learn the terms of payment that are possible.
2. A trip to court to hear the trial of an individual involved in an automobile accident case might be arranged so that the pupil can understand the advantages of public liability insurance and appreciate the excellent assistance rendered to the defendant by the lawyers of the insurance company.
3. Dramatizations can be used occasionally as a motivating and learning device. For example, the story, "Mr. Tutt Takes a Chance," has as part of its theme the fact that wills are not valid when fraud and undue influence are involved. The court scene can be easily and effectively dramatized by six or eight students.
4. After a group has studied methods of financing a home, they might be invited by the local bank to see a customer complete the transaction of financing the purchase of a home. The students could see the signing of the mortgage form and interest notes. Later they could prorate the taxes and select the types and amount of insurance that should be carried.
5. To create an awareness of the kinds of family emergencies that arise, the students might be asked to clip from current newspapers articles relating to accidents, fire, death, illness, unemployment, and old age. Then they might try to find the kinds of insurance which man uses to protect himself against these common risks. Studying expired insurance policies, looking at specimen policies, talking with insurance underwriters and representatives from the Social Security and State Employment offices are helpful. To crystallize what has been learned about insurance the films, "For Some Must Watch," or "Yours Truly, Ed. Graham" might be used.
6. To clarify the organization and operation of an insurance company, the film "How Life Insurance Began" might be followed in class by the formation of an insurance company within the school that would protect its class members against loss of textbooks, gym equipment, etc.

To help our pupils realize the social as well as financial responsibility of the individual in general community welfare we should encourage them to learn about and participate in activities of the church, Red Cross, and Welfare Agencies. They should be encouraged to investigate the purposes, budgets, and activities of the various organizations staging annual drives

and to learn how social service agencies can assist them in solving problems and achieving financial security when they establish homes of their own.

The real evaluation of such a program can be made only in the future when the student is faced with some of the problems I have indicated. However, in addition to the usual paper and pencil tests there are practical ways of evaluating the outcomes periodically during the school year. This involves evaluation by teacher, individual, group, and parent. An original dramatic presentation or broadcast given at the end of a unit and featuring the highlights might be a splendid culminating activity as well as a means of evaluation. Examples of behavior and reactions of the pupil in the classroom and elsewhere could be collected, for example, in Student Council, in the cafeteria, in the home. Is he applying principles of budgeting and good money management to school activities with which he is associated? Is he using his allowance more effectively? Has he become a more co-operative, constructive, and understanding member of the family unit when financial problems are discussed? Is he interested in the insurance which his family carries as a protection against risks? What is his attitude toward school collections for welfare agencies? Has he started a savings plan? From the beginning to the end of a unit the teacher might keep a running commentary or anecdotal records indicating reactions noted in conversation, behavior in the classroom, in extra-curricular activities, and elsewhere.

In order to develop an alive, vital program for financial security in the secondary school, much co-operative planning will be necessary. First, staff, students, and parents should participate in jointly defining the present and future needs of the students and working out possible ways of meeting them. Then a survey should be made to see what areas are already included in the curriculum, what are omitted, what needless duplication occurs. For example, are the home economics and mathematics departments overlapping in their work on budgeting. A careful investigation of resources in community and school should be undertaken. With this information, a committee can effectively work out ways of implementing the program so that all the boys and girls, not simply a segment, have the opportunity to gain these desirable attitudes, appreciations and understandings under the guidance of interested faculty members who either have the necessary background or are willing to work hard to acquire it.

Ways of Including Education for Family Financial Security

GEORGE C. GALPHIN

FAMILY financial security as a part of the secondary-school program is not new. For a number of years, in many different schools, by different teachers in the same school, various attempts have been made to introduce

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some study of this problem. If the end product of our secondary schools is any criterion of the effectiveness of the job we have done in this phase of our curriculum, we have not succeeded.

Perhaps one reason that we have failed is the inadequacy of existing textbook materials, courses of study, and methods of instruction. In 1949 a study was conducted which indicated insufficient curriculum materials and a narrow concept of the problem. This study also revealed that teachers were not prepared to handle this topic. In too many instances financial security was used as a fill-in to the curriculum and was not there because of its importance. To be sure, there are some exceptions to this. In a few schools there has been developed a breadth of material and an understanding of this problem which has resulted in the development of some very fine teaching materials and some excellent activities in the field of family financial security.

It is not necessary to argue that family financial security should be a very significant part of the secondary-school curriculum. It should be recognized by all leaders in the field of secondary education that handling money is one activity which will be participated in by everyone. The correct handling of our financial resources is certainly a desirable activity, and individuals should be taught how to do this better. A casual reading of the newspaper and the slightest investigation of family problems indicate very clearly that too many of our people have not learned to meet adequately the problems of family financial security.

THE COMMITTEE ON FAMILY FINANCIAL SECURITY EDUCATION

A group of educators headed by Dr. Herold C. Hunt, General Superintendent of Schools in Chicago, have been appointed a committee which is entitled "The Committee on Family Financial Security Education." It should not be concluded that any of these individuals are experts in this field. From the activities of this committee, one is easily convinced of their sincerity and of their belief in the importance of family financial security as a phase of the curriculum activities of the school. This group has realized the importance of doing two things. First, the development of materials which would be interesting, broad, and significantly thorough for the use of the secondary schools in this phase of curriculum work. In addition, they have been concerned with the training of individuals to develop techniques in handling this material and providing inspirational leadership to other members of their faculties in various school systems. The committee was cognizant of two forces in operation which made the study of family financial security at the secondary-school level imperative. The majority of children attending the secondary schools of this nation would not have, in a formal education situation, an opportunity to understand and to plan for family financial security. Their information would be incidental and quite incomplete. The second factor which influenced the thinking of the committee was the significance of the family in continuing the good life as it is conceived in America. Studies dealing with family solidarity have emphasized and re-emphasized the significance of finance, financial security, and the problems involved.

In order to secure adequately trained personnel and to develop more complete materials in this field, this committee came upon the usual problem which confronts educators when some new venture is proposed; namely, that of money to finance the project. Fortunately, the Institute of Life Insurance came to the financial assistance of the committee and has provided, at least for the time being, sufficient funds to begin the program.

It is only natural that there should have been some hesitancy in accepting financial support from only one agency of the many which would be concerned with family financial security. Certainly the committee would have been open to criticism in accepting such financial support if it had not been thoroughly understood that in no way would the Institute of Life Insurance try to control or dictate the kind of materials which were to be developed and the ways that this material should be presented.

If the committee was to develop materials which would be better than the materials now in use, specialists in the field of finance and in family relations would have to be secured. Through the good offices of the Institute of Life Insurance, there has been made available experts from practically every field of finance. These specialists have made significant contributions to the development of the source units and the teaching units which were prepared by members of the workshop at the University of Pennsylvania in 1950. In the future not only must there be made available specialists in the field of finance, but there must also be available individuals who thoroughly understand the relationship of finance to the over-all family problems.

In developing the curriculum materials which are to be used in assisting young people to understand the full import of family financial security, a pattern has been developed which may be useful to education and to the public in providing better schools for a better tomorrow. It is for this reason that some detailed discussion is offered of the work which has been accomplished thus far.

1950 WORKSHOP AND FAMILY FINANCIAL SECURITY

In the summer of 1950 there was developed at the University of Pennsylvania a workshop on family financial security. This workshop was under the joint supervision of the Wharton School of Finance and the School of Education. The program was entirely financed by funds received by the University of Pennsylvania from the Institute of Life Insurance. The activities of the workshop were developed by a committee from the University of Pennsylvania which represented the School of Education and the Wharton School. The personnel of the workshop was selected by this joint committee. At no time did the Institute of Life Insurance request that certain things be taught. Their advice has been sought and objectively considered. Through the good offices of the Institute of Life Insurance individuals, not connected with either the School of Education or the Wharton School, were secured. These individuals were specialists in their respective fields of interest in financial security. The program which was developed was the sole responsibility of edu-

cators, financed by funds which were given without strings for the purpose of control.

In the 1950 workshop there were thirty-two individuals representing twenty states and thirty-two school systems. They did not apply for admission to the workshop, but were selected by the Committee at the University of Pennsylvania to do graduate work after having been recommended by their respective superintendent or principal. In every instance the secondary-school principal played an important part in the selection of the individual members. People were selected because of their background, their interests in this topic, and their ability to become leaders in their respective schools and communities.

It appears from what has happened since the 1950 workshop that the committee at the University of Pennsylvania did an excellent job in selecting the members of the workshop. The source units and the teaching units which have been developed are now being used by the members of the workshop in their respective communities. In addition, many members of the workshop have participated in adult education programs and have been very effective in developing a renewed interest in the practical values of education in their various communities.

There can be no question that, though small the step, the program of family financial security has been in the right direction. The materials which have been developed will, if past experience means anything, be used in other schools and will be of value in the development of local workshops. If the secondary schools of this country are interested in improving their curriculum in financial security, these people should be very valuable as leaders of local workshop groups.

In the workshop program at the University of Pennsylvania in the summer of 1951, there will be approximately forty-five to fifty schools represented. It is recognized that these schools together with those of the 1950 group represent only a small portion of our secondary schools. In spite of this, this small group may provide the necessary force to get things going in the direction of better materials and more adequate instructions in the field of family financial security.

It is proposed that we accept as our guiding principle that the first duty of the school is to teach boys and girls to do better those desirable things that they are likely to do anyway. The acceptance of this principle should promote the development of adequate curriculum materials in family financial security. The acceptance of this criterion should promote the improvement of instruction in these materials. This guiding principle, in the development of a program of family financial security, will promote the best interests of the individual and of the nation.

Group IX—Parlor G

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Are We in Need of a New Plan for Evaluating Student Qualifications for College Entrance?

LESTER W. NELSON

ANY attempt to present an answer to the question posed for this discussion must be based on an examination of the program of secondary education currently being developed in our country. For purposes of this discussion, two assumptions are being made—each of which, no doubt, can and probably will be challenged by some. *In the first place*, it is assumed that domination by the colleges of the secondary-school curriculum which was manifest for so long a time, and which has increasingly given way in recent years, will not be re-established. *Second*, it is assumed that the colleges must, perforce, adapt their entrance requirements and procedures to meet such changes in secondary education as will enable them to select those graduates best fitted to profit from their own particular programs. Let us examine these two assumptions briefly before coming to grips with the basic question.

During the past decade, in particular, secondary education has increasingly sought to adapt its program to the needs of all American youth. Experimentation in curriculum building has found its inspiration and its support, not from the stimulation or pressures emanating from the colleges, but from the social, moral, and economic needs of the youth it seeks to serve. The grass roots of the changing pattern of our secondary-school curriculum have not been nurtured by our colleges and universities so much as by the dynamic forces existent in thousands of local communities. These forces have compelled significant changes in our curriculum, and these changes have been represented by a greatly broadened and enriched program of new courses, expanded activities, creative experiences, student participation, and community relationships. We have progressed from the point at which the curriculum was thought of as consisting only of those activities which took place in the confines of an academic classroom to our present generally accepted concept of the curriculum as embracing all of the activities and experiences afforded our students under the supervision of the school. These changes, on the whole, have been evolutionary and have taken place in response to the needs of the

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youth,—*all the youth*,—of our communities. The process of change has received various labels in recent years—"life adjustment education," "general education," "the imperative needs of youth," "the reorganization of secondary education," and others. Regardless of the label, however, the basic purpose underlying each such program has been to furnish a better education for all American youth as contributing members of our society. It is significant, I think, that none of the changes taking place have borne the label of *better preparation for college*, although it is universally agreed that, if such changes better equip young people to be more effective members of society, they must necessarily contribute to their better preparation for college, since more effective social functioning is an objective common to both secondary schools and colleges. The dominant factor governing recent changes have been found in the needs of all youth rather than the specific needs of that smaller percentage of our youth who do go on to college. In this sense, then, the secondary-school program has ceased to be a program for the minority of youth who are college bound. It is inconceivable, I think, that the process of emancipation of secondary education from the lead strings of traditional college-entrance requirements will be reversed, or will revert to what was true even a generation ago.

At this point it is necessary, I think, to recognize very clearly that, if it is the obligation of secondary education to meet the needs of all American youth, this purpose will not be served by neglecting the needs of those who do aspire to a college education. Happily, this does not appear to be a danger of which the secondary schools have been unaware. The processes of change have been slow and, if experience may be taken as a reliable guide, they will continue to be slow. Unless we desire to replace our present system of local autonomies over education by a centralized and authoritarian system, the elements of time will allow the necessary opportunities for adjustment, adaptation, reconciliation, and change. The evolutionary approach is the best safeguard of desirable ends we have and, in such an approach, domination should not be sought by any segment of our educational system.

If the colleges, then, are no longer to dominate the program of secondary education and if secondary education eschews any attempt to dominate the colleges, it necessarily follows that any plan for evaluating student qualifications for college entrance must be as evolutionary as the process of change itself. To me, this means that college entrance procedures and requirements must adapt themselves to the changes taking place in education itself. These changes are not to be found in secondary education alone—they are likewise to be found in the colleges. The process of transfer of students from secondary school to college, then, becomes one of better articulation based on an improved understanding and recognition of the nature of changes. College-entrance requirements and procedures must, of necessity, reflect these changes. It is the speaker's belief that they do increasingly reflect these changes. Only if we grow impatient or intolerant of the speed with which they take place, can we fail to recognize the fact that they *are* taking place. It is not in the

nature of the democratic process to place a high premium on speed, *per se*, and to concentrate our attention on the speed of change rather than on the nature of change is to cloud the issue.

FACTORS USED IN SELECTING STUDENTS TO ENTER COLLEGE

It is the speaker's belief that we are *not* in need of a *new* plan for evaluating student qualifications for college entrance. The wording of the topic suggests emphasis on the *plan* of college entrance rather than the *principles* of selection which would seem to be of greater importance. Who among us, I wonder, if given a clear field within which to write a new plan would, in fact, emerge with a new plan? What new factors of selection would we introduce that are not already in general use? What factors of selection now in general use would we abandon? At the risk of over-simplification, let us examine the factors of evaluation now being used in the selection of students entering college.

First, individual ability or aptitude. Would we suggest that this factor should be ignored? Certainly not. Neither the secondary school nor the college would disclaim the importance of aptitude or ability in selecting those who are to enter college. Our quarrel, if any, with this as a factor in selection can not be on the level of pertinence, then, but must be with the tools of measurement and description. How can we improve our appraisal of aptitude so that it can furnish an increasingly reliable index to true abilities? Is this not the real crux of the problem? Improvements in the tools of measurement have been and constantly are being made. It is reasonable to assume that improvements will continue to be made. Should not our concern be with further progress toward achieving an increasingly valid instrument of appraisal, as well as with increasingly effective means of describing this factor?

Second, achievement or accomplishment. None of us, I assume, would write a new plan for evaluating student qualifications for college entrance which ignored the record of achievement of the student. Certainly we do not ignore this as a criterion in determining progress of our students through our own schools, or in finally determining who will be graduated from our schools. Indeed, is it not true that the factor of achievement is the factor most generally and rigidly applied in our secondary schools in determining progress through the school? Is there less validity in achievement as a criterion for determining college entrance than in determining secondary-school progress? I believe none of us would say that this is so. Our quarrel, if any, must be rather with the appraisal of individual achievement than with its importance and pertinence. Perhaps our quarrel is with the *relative* importance attached to it as compared with other factors, rather than with its rightful place in the admission decisions. It is the speaker's belief that we tend to measure achievement too narrowly in terms of factual information mastered and repeated, rather than in terms of understandings, practical applications of knowledge, and evidences of growth. Improvements here would seem to be in the direction of better and more precise measurement, evaluation, and reporting.

Third, personal characteristics. Here, I think there is room for some real quarreling. Have we not all had some experiences as secondary-school persons of having the college admissions office reject some of our finest boys and girls who, while not demonstrating great ability or achievement in an academic way, had, nevertheless, received our strongest recommendation? Has not the college admissions officer, on the other hand, had the experience of admitting boys and girls with these same limitations and high recommendations only to discover that they were unable to keep pace with the college demands and then failed to maintain themselves in that particular institution? In general, it would seem that the colleges might very well place a higher valuation on reliable secondary-school recommendations, as compared with more objective evidence, than they do. This, of course, clearly implies and requires that the recommendations of the secondary school be discerning, honest, and intimately reflective of a knowledge of the applicant and of the standards of the college to which it is being sent. Fortunately, it seems to be generally true that the significance of secondary-school recommendations, in general, and of college evaluation of such recommendations increasing and, in this situation, there is much cause for satisfaction.

Fourth, competitive rank in class. Colleges generally feel that rank in class is one of the most reliable single predictors of college success they have, especially when appraised against the standards of the particular school concerned. Most secondary-school people seem to have far less respect for class rank and far less confidence in its true predictive value. Secondary-school people, especially, object to the use of class rank as a final determinant in the college admission process, at whatever point in the process it may be applied. As a factor to be considered, as another measure of achievement perhaps, it certainly may have its rightful place in the admission decision. It should be considered, in relation to all pertinent evidence, however, and not used as a screening device, however simple it may be to apply as a measure of acceptance or rejection. Incidentally, too, the necessity for establishing class rankings is strenuously objected to by many secondary schools because of the emphasis created thereby on purely competitive practices among students to "work for marks." It may not be too far from the truth to say that, if secondary-school people were faced with the opportunity to decide which of the criteria normally employed for college admissions could best be eliminated, they would probably eliminate rank in class.

Fifth. Minimum course or subject matter unit requirements. Here, it seems to me, is the real crux of the most significant criticisms of present college-entrance requirements and procedures. As long as the college-entrance requirements continue to be stated in terms of minimum units,—Carnegie units or their equivalent, whatever that may be—in specified subject matter fields, there will doubtless continue to be mounting secondary-school objections. This is true for three reasons. The *first* reason is that units place emphasis on quantitative measurement rather than qualitative measurement. A much better measure would be one of competence, rather than one of time

spent in the study of a subject. If valid and reliable measures of competence could be developed and made generally available for use by the secondary schools, there could be no possible reason for maintaining a quantitative measure such as units or years of study. This would appear to be so obvious as to require no further elaboration. The *second* reason for secondary-school criticism of the unit requirements is that it tends to restrict the secondary-school experience of the pupil into narrower curriculum patterns than is necessary. The student who must present four years of English, three or more years of foreign languages, three or more years of mathematics study, two years of science study, *etc.*, in addition to other local or state-mandated requirements in history and social sciences, health and physical education requirements, does not have time left in which to take advantage of many courses in the fields of fine or applied arts, homemaking courses, and others which would have provided a better rounded program of study for him. In this respect, course requirements stated as minimum years of study rather than in terms of competence in those fields, set a brake on curriculum development and limit the breath of secondary-school experience otherwise open to the student. A *third* reason for criticism of the unit requirements is the fact that it tends to perpetuate purely traditional methods of teaching—Note, I say it *tends to perpetuate* purely traditional methods of instruction. I do not intend to imply that such perpetuation is caused solely or primarily by such requirements. However, if college-entrance requirements were so stated as to place major emphasis on competence rather than in terms of units of study, they could have a powerful and beneficent effect on the vitalizing of instructional methods. Secondary schools which are vitally and sincerely concerned with problems of instructional improvement would welcome such a change for this reason alone.

Sixth, acceptance of new courses. Much criticism has been directed at college-entrance requirements for their failure to accept new secondary-school courses in satisfaction of their stated minimum units of entrance requirement. It is surely true that, as long as the colleges fail to recognize and accept such new courses, because they fall outside the traditional pattern of entrance requirements, this criticism will continue to exist. Here is intended no "across-the-board" plea that every conceivable course that may or could be offered in secondary schools should necessarily be accorded such recognition. Of course, if the qualitative standards of competence in agreed upon areas could be substituted for the unit requirements, there would be no problem in this area, for if the student could present satisfactory evidence of adequate competence, it would make no difference whether that competence had been attained within the school's classrooms or elsewhere, or whether the student had taken courses in car driving, bridge playing, or a hundred other possible items. Secondary schools desire to develop better curricula; they do not believe that restricting the curriculum to "traditional" courses meets the needs of youth,—all youth; they feel that college recognition of new courses is a "must" and they will not be satisfied with the situation until such new courses are recognized and accepted.

In summation, the speaker does not believe that we are in need of a *new* plan for evaluating student qualifications for college entrance. He does believe, however, that the plans for evaluation now in prevalent use can and should be improved. He finds much hope and promise in the demonstrated effectiveness of changes brought about by evolutionary processes over the years, and is not at all pessimistic with respect to continued improvements. He suggests that the basic criteria now used for evaluation are fair, suitable, equitable, and pertinent, *BUT* that the application of these criteria should be improved by the following means:

1. through continued development and wider use of improved tools for measuring individual abilities and aptitudes;
2. through improvements in the techniques of measuring, evaluating, and reporting achievement;
3. through the continued development of more meaningful ways for appraising and describing personal characteristics;
4. through a decreasing of emphasis on competitive class ranking, and a lessened importance on such ranking in determining admissions decisions;
5. through the progressive substitution of qualitative measures of competence in significant areas for the present quantitative *unit of years of study* requirement; and
6. through broadening of the base of college acceptance to include new courses in satisfaction of minimum total requirements for admission.

Are We in Need of a New Plan for Evaluating Student Qualifications for College Entrance?

BURTON P. FOWLER

THE trouble with college admissions procedures today is that we have no way of looking at a prospective college student as a whole person. Instead he is a kind of conglomeration of many related and unrelated parts. Where we should have an integrated, functioning human personality, we have a scrambled design of scores, scales, units, letters, random questions, Who's Who sketches, and other miscellaneous data, which frequently cancel each other out and add up to zero, any one of which, nevertheless, can be used as a danger signal, a straw to grasp at, or a shining symbol of future greatness. We must discover some way of describing a candidate for college as a human being with body, mind, and spirit, instead of a statistical unit held together by symbols and percentiles.

No useful purpose is served by trying to fix any blame for this continued confusion. The simple fact is that we have not developed in this country any reliable basis for determining who will profit most by higher education. I am not too impressed by the claim that rank in class, aptitude scores, and the like correlate with later marks in college. What we need to know is what would have happened to the boy who was rejected because of *one* of these

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complicated symbols or percentiles. Suppose the boy had had a different preparation from the kind prescribed by Mr. Carnegie. Is success in college to be appraised by marks? Are there too many smart students in college who may lack the stuff of which sound democratic citizenship is made?

We are told that a president of the United States managed just to squeeze through his undergraduate course; a future justice of the Supreme Court was mediocre as a student in college; a college president was told when half-way through high school that he lacked ability to do abstract thinking and, therefore, should plan to choose a vocation in which he would work with his hands. He happened to turn out to be a professor of philosophy as well as being elevated to the presidency of a well-known college. Any high-school principal can furnish similar examples of faulty diagnosis and guidance. We make some mistakes, of course, but the point I am trying to make is that we should try to avoid more effectively than we do at present the solemn judgments that we make from our highly-charged batteries of mathematical symbols.

Frank Bowles, the secretary of the College Entrance Examination Board, tells of a boy who rushed up breathlessly to the proctor of his examinations and asked, "Sir, can you tell me if one of the examinations I took this afternoon was English?" This boy may have got a score of 300 or 600 on his test, but certainly he was either dumb or very much confused. At any rate he had a healthy respect for subjects and verbal scores.

Even in the most selective college, the professor mutters, "How did this one ever get in." And back home, a high-school principal protests against the stupidity of making geometry an invariable requirement for college, at the same time that he is building up a weak brother by such a careless use of adjectives that only his mother would recognize him.

Later this spring a report will be published by the Educational Records Bureau that shows rather convincingly that neither the director of admissions nor the high-school principal is without sin in this mathematical adultery and, therefore, few stones should be thrown by either, but the problem rather is one that must be worked out by long, patient, co-operative action. Immediate action there should be.

The School and College Relations Committee of the Educational Records Bureau sent out two years ago a questionnaire to 1,100 colleges, and a second questionnaire last year to some 2,000 college-preparatory high schools. Although the fifty-odd items explored by these two questionnaires were not identical, they were enough alike to give a common point of view about such details of admission requirements as the principal's recommendations, required subjects, marking systems, rank in class, testing programs, new types of curriculum, credit for work projects, and many other areas that have a bearing on readiness for successful college work. The committee which prepared the questionnaire was broadly representative of high schools and colleges, both public and private.

RANK IN CLASS

The following random kinds of information and conclusions taken from the Report are pertinent to this question of the joint responsibility of school and college for needed changes in the machinery of admission requirements.

Frankly, I was surprised to learn from the tabulated results that over three quarters of colleges and high schools favor rank in class as an important criterion in the selection of students for college. I had thought there was an increasing militant minority of schools which object strongly to this artificial, mechanistic arrangement of human beings in a top-to-bottom order. One wonders if the faculties of these institutions would like to have themselves so ranked. Rank implies some fixed reliable criterion. What is it for admission to college? A score on a test? An average of marks? Studiousness? Creativeness? Good Citizenship? Personality?

My own, and probably unscientific, conclusion about ranking is that, in a senior class of a co-educational day or public school composed of from ten to five hundred boys and girls of every kind of background, ability, and curriculum, any attempt to rank them by translating highly subjective symbols or words into 93.6's and 65.3's is mathematical legerdemain of a very low order. In our own school when the statistically minded committee of our faculty completes this stunt and presents the results, there are always the same muttered exclamations of "How unjust!" "How completely cockeyed!" There is fair Alice, who never did a lick of hard intellectual work in her life and who has avoided the subjects which did not suit her aptitude, right up at the top, while her keen, able, well-organized cousin, Sue, is well below the median, a situation that will require several letters of explanation to colleges living by the upper two-fifths rule. The colleges insist that they bear these variables in mind, but there is plenty of evidence that they are overlooked in a tight squeeze. In fact, 92 per cent of the independent schools and 75 per cent of the public schools registered an emphatic protest against fixing a minimum rank.

With such an utter confusion of variables, I find it difficult to state as a fact that a boy is number twenty-six in his class of fifty. It is neither fair nor honest, and bears only vaguely on his relative fitness to do college work. When admission officers rate ranking as one of their most reliable criteria, they really mean that *good* students in high school tend to make *good* students in college; and *weak* students in high school make *weak* students in college. Such an assumption at least would make no pretense to mathematical precision.

THE CARNEGIE UNIT

Another shady character which still enjoys undeserved respectability in both the high-school principal's office and that of the director of admissions is the Carnegie Unit. Nearly 60 per cent of the 607 colleges answering the questionnaire reported that they still use the Carnegie Unit as a measure of high-school work, while one third stated that they had abandoned it. This proportion reflects about the same condition that was reported on this

subject ten years ago in the Fourth Report of the School and College Relations Committee. Now let's see what the high-school principals have to say. They report that most colleges still require the Carnegie Unit and over half of them express their agreement with this policy. Yet in another place in this same questionnaire over three fourths of the high schools blame the colleges for the lack of freedom to experiment because of fixed requirements.

Well, what is wrong with the Carnegie Unit? More than any one of the historical recipes that have come down to us from the Committee of Ten a half-century ago is this unit named for Mr. Carnegie. How he got it named for him, I am not sure. Probably he paid the bills of the Commission! At any rate, we still have an absolutely rigid system fastened onto us which presupposes that studying a subject five periods a week for thirty-six weeks, inflexibly distributed among English, mathematics, and foreign languages is the exact amount of knowledge needed to go on with advanced study. The inclusion of electives in recent years has given greater freedom to the high school, but the college, *mirabile dictu*, still calls the plays. I wonder why? The variation in requirements among colleges is still considerable enough to handicap the small isolated high school that does not have a private wire to the college admission director's office. In other words, I can see no good reason why English, trigonometry, geometry, physics, and "one unit of history" (it doesn't matter what!) should all be neatly parcelled out by the colleges for us principals to prescribe.

Freedom to depart from all this machinery is had by the fortunate few independent and public schools which have established cordial diplomatic relations with leading admission centers. These favored schools can reduce the units required for mathematics and foreign languages; they can even give courses in Oriental history, economics, and family living. An encouraging fact is that 125 of such extra-Carnegie courses were listed by the six-hundred colleges that replied to the ERB questionnaire. Only 23 of these new courses were mentioned by the men's colleges as acceptable, the women were next with 56, and the co-educational colleges with 163. A significant conclusion to be drawn from the college questionnaire is the degree of conservatism shown by these three types of colleges which is in about the same order as their position on "new" courses. At least the position of the men's colleges, except in regard to specific unit requirements, was consistent.

Signs of a more liberal attitude, however, toward the Carnegie Unit system are more frequent than they were ten years ago. The newer, experimental colleges have almost entirely disregarded fixed unit requirements for admission; and certainly some of these colleges represent a high order of scholastic achievement. Also two well-known eastern colleges for men no longer specify required subjects, although one of them has a fixed College Board requirement of achievement tests. Several of the smaller colleges for women no longer specify required subjects, although they have swung toward membership in the College Entrance Examination Board and require achievement tests.

THE EIGHT YEAR STUDY

The best, and in my opinion, most incontrovertible argument for abolishing rigid subject-matter requirements is that it has been demonstrated by the Eight-Year-Study in the Thirty Schools that the pattern of preparatory subjects in the high school has little or no bearing on success in college. The colleges, at least the majority of them, do not believe this, but such skepticism must be based on ignorance. They have failed to examine the evidence. There are still some people who believe that appendicitis is caused by grape seeds.

One cannot brush aside the detailed study of the findings of this famous Eight-Year experiment by the commission of college representatives consisting of Dean Herbert E. Hawkes, Chairman of Columbia; President Marion Park of Bryn Mawr; Dr. Richard Gummere of Harvard; Dean Harold Speight of Swarthmore; President Thomas Barrows of Lawrence College; and Dean A. J. Brumbaugh of Chicago. The report of these distinguished educators contained this significant paragraph:

The results of this Study seem to indicate that the pattern of preparatory-school program which concentrates on a preparation for a fixed set of entrance examinations is not the only satisfactory means of fitting a boy or girl for making the most out of the college experience. It looks as if the stimulus and the initiative which the less conventional approach to secondary-school education affords sends on to college better human material than we have obtained in the past.

It would seem that such a carefully considered comentary would have caused every admissions officer in the land to re-examine his requirments for college; but there is little evidence that such a re-examination has been made.

THE ERB STUDY

In the replies to the Educational Records Bureau questionnaires there are, however, several hopeful indications:

1. The schools and colleges agree overwhelmingly that there should be more nearly uniform admission blanks and have expressed a willingness to help in the preparation of such blanks. The ERB Committee proposes to try to effect a coordination of these attempts within the next year.

2. The schools and colleges agree, with varying degrees of enthusiasm, that they favor increased flexibility in requirements for entrance, although the percentage of colleges favoring more flexible requirements was smaller in New England than in any other regions. One cannot help being a bit cynical about such enthusiasm for flexibility when one observes that ten years ago a similar questionnaire revealed the same interest in flexibility.

3. More than half the colleges and a very large number of schools responding to the questionnaire went on record as favoring greater consideration of a pupil's participation in work programs and community projects as part of his preparation for college. Such a collective opinion would seem to hold out some hope for a less bookish high-school curriculum in the future.

4. More than three fourths of the colleges and an even larger proportion of the schools expressed approval of laying greater emphasis on certain

study habits and skills, such as the ability to use a library effectively, ability to write a well-organized report, and ability to profit from a lecture.

Although specific suggestions by which this impasse we seem to have reached in modernizing admission requirements for college will be treated more fully in another paper on this program, I should like, in order not to appear destructive, to state several principles, the application of which would break the jam that now exists:

1. More attention should be given by the schools, and more recognition by the colleges, to a better organization of the qualitative data submitted about our students. Checklists, scales, and paragraph summaries each has its value, which if co-ordinated might give a more adequate picture of the personality, interests, motivation, and experiences of the candidate. For the most part this is done at present in a casual and fragmentary manner with little help from the admission blanks.
2. The quantitative data should not be regarded as hurdles, any one of which might be used as a basis for rejection by the harried admissions board, but should be integrated into an index that would have more significance than any single and relatively unimportant score or percentile.
3. A fixed pattern of subjects and units should be abolished, allowing the school to plan its curriculum on the basis of needs, needs which the school knows better than the college a hundred or thousand miles away. It is no longer necessary or safe for the 15 per cent of high-school students who go to college to determine what the other 85 per cent shall study.
4. Entrance tests should be limited to two—a reading test and a writing test. If these two tests are properly constructed, the colleges have nothing to fear about any drop in standards of qualified candidates.
5. Finally, some such aptitude test as those provided by the College Entrance Examination Board and the Psychological Examination of the American Council on Education should round out the picture.

The two aspects of college admission discussed in this paper—the use of quantitative criteria, and the presentation of qualitative data—are only superficial symptoms of more basic difficulties. The balance of power between the American high school and the college right now lies with the latter. A single requirement of the college can influence the course of the high-school curriculum. It would be tragic indeed if the new direction in which the high schools were moving before and during the war—toward a curriculum of richer social values, toward broad programs of community service, toward a world outlook and toward a dynamic citizenship—should bog down in a morass of college admission requirements designed to control the crowd of applicants who wish to go to college. There must be better ways than the use of artificial hurdles.

Two important sources of encouragement in solving this problem of improving admission procedures are available: one, the Eight-Year Study, which gives the best analysis of this problem, and the best solution that has been made to date. Its publication just before Pearl Harbor unfortunately caused its findings to be lost sight of for the time being. This Report established through scientific research the relative unimportance of rigid requirements of admission and the great importance of motives, aptitudes, and habits. This report also set forth with definiteness and clarity the possibility of a genuine

synthesis of quantitative data and qualitative data, together with other kinds of supporting evidence that would make less haphazard the transfer of students from school to college. The second recourse available is the experience of the GI's in colleges, which has shown again how relatively insignificant conventional preparation and conventional admission data are as compared with motivation and habits of work.

I am convinced, if the college and the school ever undertook seriously to examine together this whole question of admission procedures combined with some attempt to find out how the selective process should work to secure both competence and variety in its student bodies, the results would be astounding. Our present use of artificial hurdles in admission procedures is the most distracting factor in secondary education. Instead of being concerned in their senior year with the survival of our democracy, these prospective freshmen are too often anxious about such questions as: "What did I get? Do you have to have 600 on the SAT to get into Siwash? Shall I review chemistry for my third achievement test? My rank is only twenty-eighth; dare I take trig instead of consumer mathematics the second term? Little wonder that year-books and class rings are more vital than a Quaker work camp or a trip to the United Nations. What do their *teachers* think is important?

Just because the flood of candidates for college is momentarily stemmed by the draft and by the effect of the lowered birth rate of the early thirties, is no reason to think that the problem is solved. Doubtless for a very few years it will be *easier* for our graduates to get into college. It is not to make the transition easier that this paper is written, but to make college admission a more intelligently selective process, one that will guarantee that the right students shall be prepared for college in the right way—and, one might wish, for the right kind of education after they get there.

Hasn't the time arrived when the high schools should know better than than the colleges who should go to college? Until we do know and make our convictions known, we have no grounds for objecting to the colleges doing it for us.

Group X—Room 103

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INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

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How Can the Senior High-School Curriculum Be Improved?

WARREN C. SEYFERT

THERE are two ways of interpreting the subject of our discussion, "How Can The Senior High School Curriculum Be Improved?" One interpretation rephrases the question to ask about the means for bringing about improvement. How can improvements be made? The other relates to the improvements which ought to be made. I assume that this latter interpretation should receive our principal attention; but the first is also a legitimate and pertinent inquiry. Therefore, although I intend to devote most of my few minutes to the mentioning of possible changes in the secondary-school curriculum, I also wish to make a comment or two on the methodology of change before I conclude.

It is understandable and appropriate that, under present circumstances, our thinking about the school program should be dominated by the military and social situation with which we are confronted. The tangible and psychological effects of this situation (commonly described by the phrase, the emergency) are inescapable. My first proposition is, none the less, that there is no occasion for our abandoning any of our essentially sound principles or practices in developing learning experiences for young people. I do not mean that our program should go ahead unchanged, regardless of the world around us. But the need for changes in our curriculum existed in times of relative peace and tranquility in the world. The pressure of the world today may cause us to accelerate certain desirable changes; they may persuade us to make some shifts in emphases; they may keep us from doing some things we want to do. But I am unable to draw, from my viewing of the contemporary world, any essentially new principles for curriculum development.

To stay with this point a moment longer, a function which I firmly believe the school must serve is that of being a stable, reliable, friendly element in the lives of today's youngsters. There is uncertainty and unpredictability enough in the everyday experience of every youth without having the school add to the amount. At the risk of being misunderstood, I argue for the

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school's maintaining itself as one of society's "conservative" institutions. I do not mean by "conservative" the usual thing—unchanging or reactionary. I mean, rather, to emphasize by the use of the word our responsibility for conserving our young people—providing that stable and dependable source of reference and guidance which every youngster needs and deserves in this jittery world.

These are times for serious and thoughtful attention to serious matters, not for dashing off in pursuit of curriculum gadgets or gimmicks. Let us take care of our youth. It is frequently said that we must straighten out this troubled world in order to provide a better place for succeeding generations. I insist that it is equally important that we do our best to help troubled youth in order that succeeding years have worth-while people to occupy them.

This may seem to you to be a rather "professional" introduction, and unnecessarily long. It is an important introduction, however, because the principle I have tried to state is important; and also because it provides the justification for my discussion of a few changes in the curriculum which I believe are sound, emergency or not. I am not prepared to be specific or detailed in discussing any of these presumed improvements. Nor shall I be exhaustive. But I think the few proposals I shall mention do at least hang together.

RECOMMENDED CHANGES

My first recommendation is that we examine our instructional program with an eye to the earlier presentation of some of our learning experiences. I do not quarrel with the general effort to keep boys and girls in school longer. I am also a very firm believer in suiting instruction to the maturity of the learner. But because we have more years to use than we formerly had and because we underestimate the maturity of interest and concern of our pupils, we are seriously in danger of delaying or stalling until youngsters either decide there is nothing really to be learned in school or until they become too bored to stay around to see if anything really worth-while will turn up.

You must understand that I recognize variations in academic ability. But the world in which, say, fifteen-year-olds live is very real to them. They have fifteen years of living behind them. We must not agree that they know all there is to know, even though they insist they do. Yet they are not children. They may be only a year away from work or three years away from the army or two years away from marriage. It is time, I insist, that we begin to treat them as though their interests and concerns and problems were as mature as they actually are. Perhaps we must be prudent in our academic demands and expectations; but I urge that we advance our estimations of their maturity of interest.

If I am right, then some of the instruction we reserve for our twelfth grade, when we may have lost a third of our "clients," ought to be undertaken much earlier. I believe, for example, that our serious work in American history might well be done in the ninth or tenth grades. Why wait for the twelfth-grade for a review of contemporary problems? Ought the really exciting experiences in literature and arts be reserved for those who have had

the strength to weather a number of years of inferior schoolroom classics? The quality of analysis of, say, the problem of racial segregation will not be as high by tenth-grade pupils as by seniors. But if segregation is real to twelfth-grade pupils, it is also real to tenth-grade youth.

It has been argued, and will be argued again, by our next speaker, that we must do all we can to improve our retention of pupils. If that is a worthy motive, then one aid to that end will be the putting of more punch and maturity into some of the courses we now offer.

My second recommendation is very similar to the first, and may seem to be only a restatement of it: that we examine and revise our instruction to give it a more serious and "scholarly" cast. Again, I do not mean that our academic expectations should be unrealistic in terms of the abilities of our pupils. But the problem-solving, analytical, and, if you will, the scholarly approach to learning is possible even if youngsters' intellectual endowments are only modest.

I know the practical considerations which from time to time lead all of us to "take the pressure off" in our program. But I am of the opinion that we have not explored sufficiently the probability that serious and intensive study of relevant problems is a source of motivation and of satisfaction to young people. It is not easy to make the distinction I wish to make between the arbitrary and meaningless standards teachers sometimes set and the serious and sincere study of problems of real moment in the lives of older adolescents. What I am pressing for here is an increased maturity in the teaching-learning complex and also in the issues and problems we ask our young people to bite into. This would be legitimate under any circumstances. Present conditions only provide the underlining and the exclamation mark.

A third recommendation I wish to make is that we undertake to revamp the pattern of the twelfth-grade program. For a majority of our pupils, the twelfth grade is the last year of their regular and organized schooling. (What I am about to propose will make equally good sense for the college-goers.) What kind of curriculum pattern is likely to make the most sense for these pupils? I believe one which enables them to pull together, to synthesize, to explore the implications of what they have experienced and learned up to this point. If this is true, I urge you to consider favorably remodeling the twelfth-grade curriculum so that: (1) at least half a pupil's time that year is spent in what we can call a general seminar; (2) that the responsibility for this seminar be placed in the hands of a single teacher; (3) that there be no predetermined course of study, but that the task of the seminar be to develop generalizations and interrelationships and to look ahead in terms of meanings of these relationships.

For many years we have argued for general courses of many kinds at the junior high-school level. Currently there is much interest in "common learnings" courses in the early secondary-school years. With these efforts I have no serious quarrel. My point is, however, that at the level where maturity of experience and relative breadth of knowledge would make generalization really possible we do nothing about it.

My next recommendation is that we give more time and thought and money to the developing of the facilities for study in our schools. There are many significant kinds of learning which do not require books or printed material; but there are many kinds that do. I wish, therefore, to develop this point principally in terms of the school library. It is the rare school that does a comprehensive job of developing its study facilities and staff. The old-fashioned study hall is gone or going; but its replacement is often little better except from the disciplinary point of view. I am arguing that we should undertake to make our school libraries real study centers. To do so, we must enrich and enlarge their contents. We must give them larger quarters. And, above all, we must give them larger staffs. A librarian and a half for 2000 pupils makes no sense. Our library staffs ought to be at least as large as our physical education departments.

I should like to see our school libraries the study centers in our schools. I know that the library-study hall combination is in disrepute among both librarians and school people. It is still an essentially sound idea. The difficulty is that we have seldom really given it a fair and thorough trial. To make it work will take money and space, I know. But we get money for new furniture and new lights, for new dining rooms, for new play fields. It is time that we undertook to get what it will take to provide adequately equipped and adequately staffed study centers for our schools.

This may not be an especially appropriate time to advocate an idea which calls for expansion of faculties, since many of us may hope only to staff our present positions in some fashion. None the less, I do recommend, as another way of improving the curriculum, that we expand the guidance services in our schools. This expansion can take two forms. One is the addition of specialists of various kinds; psychologists, psychometrists, and so on. Such people are needed as resources, but they are not the heart and essence of a guidance plan. The teacher-counselor is the person who will make the program really effective in my opinion.

There are many difficulties in the way of making a teacher-counselor program really work, and I think I have experienced most of them. A basic one, however, is that teachers are not given time and recognition for carrying this responsibility. I am recommending, therefore, that we honestly think of counseling as a legitimate part of the curriculum; and that we provide a teacher at least as much time and as many resources to serve as the adviser of a group of, say, 25 to 35 youngsters as for a comparable class section. It is time that we actually gave to counseling the pre-eminent place in the educational scheme which we agree it should have when we are away from home.

HOW TO GET CHANGES MADE

At the outset I said there were two possible interpretations of our topic. I have been talking about one of these: Some actual changes which could be made in the curriculum. In conclusion, I wish to comment briefly on the other: how to get changes made. For this baffling problem I have no simple or comprehensive answer. I think, though, that I know something that will

help, and you know it too. It is unmistakably old-hat. Unless we give teachers ample opportunity to work and study together we are not likely to have much broad-range curriculum improvement. Other conditions are also necessary, but this one is truly fundamental. I do not propose to argue the psychological foundations for this, nor do I insist on it because it is the democratic way. It is essential because it is the way that works.

If teachers are to work together they must have time. More time may mean more money in order to increase staff size. But there are other possibilities to be explored. Must classes meet five times a week? Where class size is not out of hand, increasing class size to get free time is a legitimate possibility. (Even the principal's teaching a class occasionally to free a teacher would have something to commend it.) School days can be shortened periodically. These and other suggestions that might be made are predicated on the idea that having students in class is not the only way in which teachers may serve their pupils. One of the best ways to serve youngsters is to give teachers time enough to get ready to do what they can and want to do for and with boys and girls. The interplay of ideas among teachers is at least as important as the exchange of ideas among pupils in the classroom.

I want to take advantage of you as a "captive audience" to apply the foregoing to one phase of modern curriculum thinking. We are urged on all sides these days to develop the core or common learnings type of program. A customary element in such arrangements is that a single teacher is responsible for a group of youngsters for an extended period of time and for a wide range of learning experiences. The purposes which are being sought I support. But as for myself, I should prefer a series of learning experiences, organized into subjects if you wish, based on steady collaborative planning and execution by several teachers to the "splendid isolation" of the core teachers. I know I may take an extreme position. The point I am trying to make is that teacher-teacher planning and collaboration pays off for boys and girls.

I hope that through this discussion you have been able to discern some element of continuity, even though from time to time it disappeared from view. What I have been saying is that we have the seeds and the ground ready and available for curriculum improvement. No doubt we ought to vary the crop somewhat by adding some new seeds. But, meanwhile, we can grow a pretty fair crop with what we have if we just get up a little earlier in the morning and keep the oil level up in the tractor.

How Can the Senior High School Be Improved?

C. LESLIE CUSHMAN

THE number of changes in the curriculum of the senior high school—additions and subtractions, new approaches, and the like—for which forceful arguments could be advanced is infinite. This, however, is no time

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for attack on an infinite number of unrelated items. Our times call for action, action concentrated on a small number of related matters of major importance. It is highly desirable that there be widespread agreement about what these items should be, and that the attack upon them be unified and vigorous. As a program to this end, I suggest the following six closely related types of action.

1. Action designed to hold the largest possible percentage of youth in school until completion of the high school program.
2. Action designed to involve all youth on a part-time basis in useful community service.
3. Action designed to make each youth's experience throughout every phase of the school program consistently democratic.
4. Action designed to enable pupils to see the day-by-day work in every classroom in clear perspective as to time, place, and value.
5. Action designed to enable youth to work with others in the school, the family, the community, the nation, and especially the world, on a basis of broad common purposes, with faith sufficient to overcome the irritation of day-by-day errors, but also discernment adequate to detect fundamental differences.
6. Action designed to make the learning process throughout the school thoroughly efficient.

These six types of action would be appropriate for secondary education at any time. They have unusual significance at this time—a time of as great emergency in human affairs as man has ever known. While we may hope this Emergency will be of brief duration, for purposes of planning we will not go wrong if we assume that it may continue for many years, perhaps for as long as any of us are associated with the cause of education. Therefore, these are suggested not as measures for today and tomorrow, but as matters probably of enduring importance.

Consider briefly what is meant by each of the proposed courses of action and why it is deemed important.

1. Action to hold pupils in schools

If one assumes, as I most certainly do, that it was never so important for the general welfare that youth should continue through high school, the need for vigorous action to bring this to pass is so apparent to most high school administrators as to require no elaboration. The all important question is, "What can we do to hold them?"

There are two things we can and should do. We should do all in our power to convince civilian employers, military authorities, and the parents that for youth to continue in school is the right thing to do. We can do our utmost to maintain a high school program that will interest and challenge every youth, even under the terribly disturbing conditions that he finds on every side. Ours should be a program that parents and pupils will feel is essential for coping with those problems and opportunities the world may have in store for youth. To do this will require far more imagination and flexibility of action than we have given the job to date, and this is said in no way to belittle our past efforts.

2. *Action to involve all youth in useful community service*

There are two compelling reasons presently for a great expansion of community service for all youth. First, as never before, the services of youth are needed, and increasingly will be needed by our communities. Secondly, the nature of our times is such as to cause youth to want to serve their communities. The traditional life pattern of all, school for eighteen years or more before going to work, is destined to become a thing of the past. We should seek to replace this with an extended period of combined school and work.

What is proposed is that schools expand greatly the many modest beginnings they have made at providing community work and service experiences for youth. These include co-operative school-work programs, after school employment, distributive education, volunteer social service, and others. This calls for considerable liberalization of school credit arrangements for work experience, a great increase in the flexibility of school programs to permit much community service within the school day proper, the development of sound guiding principles for schools and employers, and the expansion of school supervisory service for these activities.

In all of this, schools must be very realistic about one thing—this is no time for trifling about work. Ours is a busy world, where employers say, "Either you will have to help us get the job done, or get out."

3. *Action to make each youth's school experience consistently democratic*

If youth is to work, and to fight, and perhaps to die for democracy, he is entitled to a school background of truly democratic living. This is not the place to expand on what "truly democratic living" in a school requires. Surely, however, it involves (1) respect for every pupil as a person by every teacher, (2) a large measure of pupil participation in deciding the what and the how of one's educational experience, and (3) the chance to think critically and open-mindedly both as an individual and as a group member in every classroom. All of this has recently been put much more succinctly by a high school youth who asked, "Why is it that some teachers encourage us to think for ourselves while others just hand it out and ask us to take it without any questions?"

Very properly and understandably, pupils are becoming more sensitive to lapses in democratic practice. Simultaneously, the experience of living and working under the pressures of a very tense world makes it easy for each of us at times to act in an authoritarian manner. This is a tendency we should fight off as vigorously as any enemy from without. None of our pupils should ever have reason to say that he has not experienced in at least one American institution, the public school, genuine democracy.

4. *Action to enable pupils to see what is taught in the perspective of time, place, and value*

In an excellent little book entitled *This is Teaching*, Dr. Marie Rasey of Wayne University uses an illustration that points up one of the greatest needs of all teaching. She calls attention to the way map makers for the modern

press place in one corner of a detailed map a small map of a much larger area, with the area of the detailed map clearly indicated thereon. The purpose, of course, is to enable the reader immediately to see detail in terms of broad perspective. All teaching, Dr. Rasey contends, should be like this.

Consider for a moment how this technique might be applied at almost any point of any subject. Each new discovery in science would be shown in the perspective of the whole scientific movement. Science itself would be seen as an integral part of western culture. It would be made clear that modern science would have been impossible without the earlier development of mathematics. And it would be shown that all of these things have come to pass only because Western thought has been characterized by a consistency of belief that ours is an orderly universe.

It may be said this is too difficult, that many teachers are not prepared for this approach, and that it is not adapted to immature minds. Should we not, however, adopt the point of view that no other kind of teaching makes sense in this age, when all men are challenged as never before to see all detail in terms of broad perspective?

The capacity to see relationships is the most distinguishing mark of man. And as one of our contemporaries has well pointed out, the most inhuman act of which any of us can be guilty is to expect of men less than the best of which they are capable. Who among us can say that by taking thought we cannot all improve greatly our teaching in this regard!

5. Action to enable youth to work effectively with others under the strains of the contemporary scene

The choosing of one's partners, be it for a dance, a friendship, a marriage relationship, a business, a school, a church, an election, a peace movement, or a military effort is the most difficult, and also the most important of all life activities. With the increasing complexity of culture, these choices have become more difficult and more important to our happiness. Youth, indeed all of us, if we are to be effective social beings and also to maintain our own self respect, must develop certain basic understandings regarding the choice of partners. I suggest as such understandings the following:

a. Many of the most important decisions of life, particularly such decisions as involve human relationships, do not offer alternative courses of action that are either *all right* or *all wrong*. As an example of this turn to the field of international affairs, where we are now forced to decide whether to make Yugoslavia a partner in our attempt to check Russia. The decision here is seen by most persons as gray in nature, one on which sincere and informed persons will disagree.

b. Decisions regarding who will be our partners must be made in terms of a total situation as of a given time, and often are properly alterable at another time. Here an example that we all recognize is to be found in our relations either with China or Japan as of 1941 and 1951.

c. No partnership will endure unless it is cemented by a shared faith that both parties are sufficiently trustworthy to justify overlooking many mistakes

chargeable to human frailty. To illustrate again from the international field, the Atlantic Community will succeed only if the daily relations among the signatory powers are characterized by mutual confidence and a readiness to understand and forgive each other's mistakes. If we and they insist on asking afresh each morning, "Are we sure we can rely on our partners?" the whole enterprise will be deprived of that foundation of human confidence essential for *community action*.

The daily life of the school and the work of almost every subject should be such as to develop understandings of this type. If we fail in this, our youth will go into the adult world to become skeptics incapable of thinking and acting in situations where men must co-operate or perish.

6. *Action designed to make the learning process efficient*

No attempt will be made here to consider how this end is to be achieved. That it is a basic need is self-evident. Like every other group in American life, schools will have to get more done with less time and less adequate resources. This time we are working with the most basic of all our national resources and the resource that is most short in supply. Never in our culture have the words *Youth Wanted* been written so clearly over the portals that lead to adult life.

* * * * *

The particular items that have been mentioned are offered with no spirit of finality. There is, however, conviction on the part of the writer that every senior high school will do well to formulate for itself some such program for action. In doing this it would be well to keep clearly in mind certain very fundamental characteristics of the situation we face.

First, we should be very clear on the fact that in working with youth at this time we are working with the most basic of all national resources and the resource that is most short in supply. Never in our culture have the words *Youth Wanted* been written so clearly over the portals that lead to adult life.

Secondly, youth wants to serve. The desire to be accepted as an adult is normal and healthy.

Finally, for us who teach and administer the schools, the future would become increasingly frustrating if we merely kept shop. But if we think wisely and act boldly, to the end that we may deal competently with America youth, then we, too, will be warranted in feeling that we have responded to our Country's call that "All must serve."

Group XI—Club Suite One

CHAIRMAN: *G. Baker Thompson*, Assistant Superintendent, Delaware County Schools, Media, Pennsylvania

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The Improvement of Secondary Education through Co-operative Planning for Youth

VERNON L. NICKELL

The Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program

THE topic before us, "The Improvement of Secondary Education Through Co-operative Planning for Youth", states very well one fundamental element in the organization of the Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program (ISSCP). The Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program is a co-operative effort designed to give assistance and impetus to the improvement of instruction in the secondary schools of Illinois. By "co-operative" we mean that thirty-eight lay and professional organizations, and the colleges and universities of the States co-operate with each other and with the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction in formulating policies, in providing services to local schools, and in giving direction to the program. Among the co-operating organizations are the Illinois Secondary School Principals' Association, the Illinois Agricultural Association, the County Superintendents' Association, the Illinois Association of School Administrators, the Illinois Association of School Boards, the Illinois Congress of Parents and Teachers, the Illinois Education Association, the Illinois Elementary School Principals' Association, the Illinois Manufacturers' Association, service organizations, business, labor, and numerous subject-matter associations such as the Illinois Association of Teachers of English, the Illinois Association of Vocational Agriculture Teachers, the Illinois Council for the Social Studies, and others.

In addition, we mean by "co-operative" that the program is carried on, at every stage, through co-operative action. In local high schools this co-operation means participation by many members of the faculty; ideally, by all members of the faculty. You will agree, I am sure, that it also means participation by parents, by laymen who are not parents, and by pupils.

Fundamentally, the ISSCP is a grass-roots program—nothing is forced on anyone—we co-operate with local schools in attempting to improve programs when such co-operation is requested. I cannot over-emphasize this basic tenet in our program, namely, that curriculum improvement is a grass-

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roots job with the major contributions being made by the local school staff and representative laymen working in the local school.

The ISSCP was launched on September 1, 1947. Subsequently, the ISSCP affiliated with the national Life Adjustment Education Program; the Steering Committee of the ISSCP is also the Steering Committee for the Illinois Life Adjustment Education Program. The major purposes of the ISSCP, together with an enumeration of the major activities which have been sponsored to achieve these purposes, follow.

PURPOSE 1: To co-ordinate on a state-wide level and on a local school level, all of the persons and groups who are, or who should be, interested in the high-school curriculum.

Activities: On the State level the persons and groups have been effectively organized into a Steering Committee, which includes representatives of all of the organizations mentioned earlier. At the local school level, a similar type of representative organization has been utilized.

PURPOSE 2: To sponsor studies basic to curriculum revision

Activities: One of the major points upon which the State Steering Committee agreed is that the Program should assist every participating school and community to get the facts about itself that are basic to curriculum revision. Our assumptions, in sponsoring these studies, are (1) that to proceed intelligently in curriculum revision we must *know*, and we cannot know without the facts; (2) that school people are professional—if they have the facts, they will consider them honestly, and without prejudice; and (3) that each school should get the facts for that school.

Five studies were variously conducted in 178 Illinois high schools. A holding power study was conducted in 79 representative schools, a study of hidden tuition costs in 79, one on the extent and character of pupil participation in extra-class activities in 13, one on the adequacy of available guidance services in 93, and a fifth, largely on a follow-up of graduates, in 95 schools. Copies of the inventories, tests, and schedules for conducting each of these studies have been set up in bulletin form. State-wide summaries of the findings from the first four studies listed above, together with data for each school, were returned to participating schools for use in the formulation of hypotheses regarding desirable local curriculum changes; the data for each school that participated in the follow-up study have been returned to it, and the state-wide summary will be ready on March 1, 1951. A number of schools have made significant changes in their programs as a result of the findings of these research studies, and other schools are at work on the problem.

These five studies were, and are, available to local schools on a largely cost-free basis. The Bureau of Research and Service of the College of Education, University of Illinois, has financed these studies in large part.

We are now engaged in setting up nineteen new action-research projects. These projects are a direct outgrowth of, and constitute an implementation

of, the ISSCP Follow-Up Study. Since these projects were described in another section of this Convention, they are only mentioned at this point.

PURPOSE 3: To encourage developmental (experimental) programs

Activities: At the present time, the ISSCP is co-operating with 45 selected school systems in attempting to develop 86 projects. Seventy-seven of these projects are concerned with the improvement of existing courses in English, mathematics, science, social studies, etc.; with enrichment in broad fields; with the development of common learnings courses; or with projects which cut across subject lines.

A team of consultants from the colleges, universities, State Department, and other high schools co-operate with persons affiliated with local schools in attempting to develop superior programs. If and when superior programs have been developed, the local teachers and administrators will help other schools on similar projects; moreover, as the local projects are being developed, teachers and administrators from other schools are encouraged to study what is going on.

Throughout the three-year lifetime of this Program the colleges and universities have co-operated, at every step, in a most encouraging manner. This co-operation has been appreciated most sincerely by teachers and administrators in the public schools. It represents one of the truly unique features of the Illinois Program. To have specialists from colleges and universities, teachers and administrators in local schools, and representatives of the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction participate together on the solution of urgent and disturbing educational problems is bound to lead to many significant changes. In fact, there is now abundant evidence that such work already has led to many significant and far-reaching changes. While these changes have been, for the most part, in secondary schools, it doubtless goes without saying that they are having an impact on elementary and on higher education.

The findings from the basic studies conducted in these schools are of inestimable value in building a broadly based local consensus regarding what needs to be done and in furnishing numerous "specifics" which merit attention.

The personnel of the teams consists of members of the staffs of the Department of Public Instruction, Eastern Illinois State College, Eureka College, Evanston Township High School, Illinois State Normal University, New Trier Township High School, Northern Illinois State Teachers College, Northwestern University, Oak Park Township High School, Southern Illinois University, University of Chicago, University of Illinois, and Western Illinois State College. The institutions with which these persons are affiliated have contributed their services and paid expenses incurred.

In addition to the seventy-seven developmental projects just described, intensive consultation services have been made available to nine carefully chosen schools. These services are being directed toward the improvement of the total school program, including community influences, interests, and

organizations. In any one school, these services are provided exclusively, or largely, by one higher institution. Every effort will be made by the public school personnel and the consultants to develop in these centers not only an improved program of education for the local community, but also to develop certain patterns of group action which any school system and any group of consultants can use, with necessary modifications, to attack the problem of improving the total educational program of a community.

The ISSCP and the Citizenship Education Project, sponsored by Teachers College, Columbia University, are now collaborating in making available specialized services in citizenship education to numerous schools in Illinois. Through consultant help and the use of printed materials, every effort is being made to help local schools provide to boys and girls enriched opportunities in citizenship.

PURPOSE 4: To conduct workshops for principals and teachers

Activities: More than 600 school administrators have attended one or more three-day workshops; 1100 school administrators and teachers attended one of the three three-day workshops; approximately 9000 administrators and teachers from 31 counties have attended one of the 25 county meetings.

During the summer of 1949, workshops were conducted by each of the State teachers' colleges, in co-operation with the ISSCP.

During the past three summer sessions, higher institutions in Illinois offered curriculum work, on a credit basis, which contributed much to the ISSCP.

The ISSCP has co-operated, during the past three years, with many local school systems in conducting curriculum workshops.

PURPOSE 5: To prepare and distribute publications

Activities: Eleven rather sizable bulletins have been issued, and three are presently in press. In addition, 32 other items have been published and made available to the schools as a part of the ISSCP.

PURPOSE 6: To establish relationships with higher institutions

Activities: A committee headed by Dean Ralph W. Tyler of the University of Chicago has completed a report concerned with bases for admissions to higher institutions. This report has been presented to higher institutions and secondary schools in Illinois.

Our Illinois Program is not beamed at improved opportunities for any one group—pupils in college preparatory curricula, pupils in general curricula, or pupils in vocational curricula. Rather, we are trying to develop steps which will lead to improvements for *all pupils*. As a consequence of this emphasis, we have projects concerned with the initiation of special learning opportunities for high-ability pupils, with the initiation of special learning opportunities for slow-learners, with the provision of common learnings, with the provision of various types of special-interest learnings, and so on. In each project, as I stated earlier, representatives of higher institutions, of the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and of the local school system collaborate at every step.

The aim of meeting the needs of all youth stems from the conviction that youth of secondary-school age are the business of our high schools; they are our business. The acceptance of this idea places an enormous load on the high school, a load which we must accept or face the alternative. The alternative is that we shall let some other agency assume part of the responsibility.

Perhaps it is trite to say that an organization of this type, with the purposes enumerated, calls for co-operation in its highest form. Success is dependent upon the efforts of many persons who work together, in a common cause, and in an effective manner.

The Improvement of Secondary Education Through Co-operative Planning for Youth

DONALD ROSS

The Metropolitan School Study Council

SINCE 1940, there has been developing in the United States a different kind of organization for educational co-operation. It is the regional school study council. There are, at present, more than a score of these regional councils in this country. Within the last year and a half, we have met with educators from Germany, Egypt, New Zealand, India, and Israeli, who have sought information about school study councils, with the intent of starting adaptations of the American form in their native lands.

The oldest of these regional study councils, and a model for many of them, is the Metropolitan School Study Council. This Council consists of seventy school systems in the New York metropolitan area. These schools are in Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and eastern Pennsylvania. Eight sections of the City of New York are included as individual members. The communities making up the Council are favored by those economic and sociological factors which research has indicated as being related to the quality of schools.

The Metropolitan School Study Council can be considered a laboratory for seeing what is happening on the "growing edge" of education. We have reason to believe that what the most favored schools are doing now can provide a predictive pattern for schools in general. Furthermore, we have reason to believe that specific efforts to improve the quality of schools can show more immediate, controlled, and measurable effects in this laboratory of schools favored by their environment. Thus, the findings in reference to Council schools have definite application for schools in general.

The Metropolitan School Study Council is an example of a co-operative research organization. It is supported through fees paid by the members of

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the Council. A great deal of the research conducted by the Council is done by staff members from Council school systems. There are approximately twenty-five active Council committees, working on a wide range of problems, composed of a total of over 500 such staff members, plus students, parents, board of education members, and other citizens interested in education. The findings of this large number of people are published from time to time by the Council. The support of the Council also makes possible the maintenance of a staff of full- and part-time research workers and secretaries at Council headquarters.

The Council is a device for the communication of ideas. As indicated above, it has an extensive publications program. In addition to committee reports and research studies, the magazine *EXCHANGE*, collections of school practices, and how-to-do-it manuals come from its offices. The committees themselves, and their local paralleling committees within individual communities, are communications devices. When competent school people meet together, the exchange of good practices is inevitable.

The Metropolitan group is but one of four agencies affiliated with the Institute of Administrative Research of Teachers College, Columbia University. To study the effects of significantly improved financial support on schools outlying from urban and sub-urban areas, the Central School Study has been set up. On the basis of research that showed that there is no region of the United States that does not have the potential for good schools, the nation-wide Associated Public School Systems was created. This association of schools seeks to improve schools through the dissemination of good practices and procedures. The Bronx Park Project is an experimental attempt to secure the desirable effects of decentralized administration while retaining the advantages of big-city organization of schools. These four agencies, differing somewhat in specific purposes and methods, have much in common and interact for mutual benefit. Experience, quarters, facilities, and, to some extent, personnel are shared. All have house organs which are published from the same office.

In order to keep this paper within reasonable limits, however, we shall confine the balance of our remarks to the Metropolitan School Study Council.

SPECIFIC COUNCIL INTEREST IN SECONDARY SCHOOL PROBLEMS

In the fall of 1948, Mr. Leonard Best, a board of education member from a Council community, raised the question as to whether or not the Council was contributing to effects in the high schools comparable to the changes that were taking place in the elementary schools. In response to this challenge, a meeting was held of public school superintendents and high school principals. From this emerged a Council Committee on Secondary Schools. This Committee soon focalized three points of investigation: obstacles to change, techniques for change, and defensible curriculum content. Three committees to deal with these specific aspects replaced the older over-all committee. In time, the curriculum content group further sub-divided to study certain definite curricular objectives. Thus, a question raised as to the adaptability of the sec-

ondary schools eventuated in a family of study and action committees whose meetings are regularly attended by over 130 secondary school principals, supervisors, and teachers.

These committees, in their history and their operation, demonstrate several basic principles in co-operative educational planning for better schools. They have drawn upon a wide variety of persons—students and lay people as well as professional educators of all levels. They have utilized the human and physical resources and research possibilities of a great university, yet have retained control of their own purposes and deliberations. They have selected items for study big enough and dynamic enough to be worthy of the effort, but have not permitted their studies to wander off into nothingness because they lacked discipline by set, achievable goals. Their approach has been in large part pragmatic; what works in schools must have some virtue. Yet they have continually hewed to the dictum that no school has yet achieved perfection; good schools must have the capacity for perpetual change to meet new challenges in their environment and new contributions to the body of professional, technical lore of education.

WORK OF THE TECHNIQUES FOR CHANGE COMMITTEE

The task of this group has been to delineate the techniques that have proved effective in making wholesome changes in the secondary schools. The membership of this Committee was deliberately set up in such a fashion that it is composed of general administrative officers, curriculum directors, supervisors of instruction and secondary school administrators, all drawn from systems that have a record of successful quality growth in their schools. The theory was that if successful people from successful schools were drawn together to analyze their experiences, some distillation of that which was workable and that which was not would emerge. The results of a year of such recounting and synthesis was published by the Council in a succinct little document entitled "Better Schools Faster."

Since that time, this Committee has undertaken a more systematic historical review of successful changes and has explored the problem of evaluation of significance of changes made.

This is co-operative planning of a high type to secure schools for youth that approach in quality the kind of schools we know how to run but never succeed in achieving.

WORK OF THE CURRICULUM COMMITTEES

If the meetings of the curriculum content committees did nothing else but provide a periodic opportunity for the exchange of practices and ideas between the representatives of excellent schools, they would be justified. They have made more tangible contributions to co-operative planning for better schools, however. Two examples, selected out of many possible, of how these committees work and what they can achieve follow.

The Family Competence Committee, composed of high school teachers of a wide variety of subjects, and a limited number of supervisors and administrators, developed an inventory device to be used by individual high schools

to determine how much and where instruction was being given in the relatively new area of education for family competence. In other words, there is a feeling that a lot of family competence education is taking place within existing traditional high school departmental organization. How much? How repetitious? How well balanced? What students are being missed? These questions and others can be answered by this inventory device. Having these answers, school staffs can plan for co-ordination of a dispersed program of family life education or can more justifiably decide that a specific family living course be instituted.

The inventory is part of the June, 1950, report of this Committee. Entitled "Let's Do Something About Family Competence," the report has been published by the Metropolitan School Study Council.

The Civic Competence Committee has given its attention to quite a variety of aspects of the improvement of citizenship education. Two specific aspects are: How can existing arrangements or activities of the school be better used to teach the wise exercise of civic responsibility? How can the efficacy of the school in training for citizenship be evaluated? Both of these topics have been the spring-boards for the themes of student forums which this Committee annually sponsors. The forum of 1949 drew together 150 student council presidents, student government advisors, and interested administrators to discuss the part student government does or could play in learning civic competence by practice. The 1950 forum turned on the question, "What experiences have you had in high school that you believe have had the greatest effect on your civic outlook?" Student leaders from thirty schools were the speakers at that day's panels.

WORK OF THE COMMITTEE ON OBSTACLES TO CHANGE

Change in schools is slow. It has been demonstrated by three different investigations that it usually takes about fifty years for a good idea to move from a try-out stage to a saturation level of diffusion. If schools are that slow to improve, there must be resistance. To define some of these blocks to change and to eliminate them, if possible, has been the work of the Committee on Obstacles to Change or, as it has become known somewhat facetiously, the Blockbuster Committee.

After some reference to the experience of its members, this Committee drew up a list of resistances about which they believed they could do something. From this list, for first attack, they selected the resistance of fixed and external college entrance requirements.

As a result of the stimulation and initiative of this Committee, progress is currently being made to work out a regional agreement for the New York metropolitan area whereby the secondary schools will be freed of some of the control exercised by college-catalogue-defined course patterns in terms of Carnegie Units and externally administered subject matter examinations. Columbia University, acting through Mr. Ewald B. Nyquist, its director of admissions, took the lead in calling a meeting of representatives of a dozen very "ivy" colleges in the Northeast and an equal number of Council school

systems. The Council schools were represented by superintendents and high school principals, the colleges by officers of admission or instruction or both, when they met on January 12 of this year. At this meeting, which is expected to be the first of a series to work on this problem, the high schools presented their case for an experimental regional arrangement combining features of the Michigan and Illinois plans. By a unanimous vote, a committee of eight high school and college representatives was created and instructed to prepare a specific plan for later presentation to the larger group.

It is contemplated that the agreement, if it can be achieved, will operate originally with this group of colleges and the Council secondary schools as participants. Both are select groups. The Council schools can meet rather stringent tests of institutional quality. The list of participating schools can be expanded in due time. The reasonable route for such expansion would be to provide for application for participant status by interested schools and the acceptance or rejection of applications by a governing college-high-school board who would apply objective standards of established validity in estimating the quality of the applying institution.

Two interesting differences from the other regional admissions plans may be noted in this embryo arrangement. (1) The colleges participating, with one exception, are independent, endowed institutions. (2) The high school group is a voluntarily associated group of select schools that are drawn from four different states. Both groups have been chosen, not by the chance of location with reference to state boundaries, but by their reputation for interest in the finest possibilities of education. Furthermore, the situation is such that control must be dispersed among the participating institutions and cannot gravitate to any single state university or state department of education.

Having launched what promises to be a very significant program in this area, the Committee on Obstacles is now about to turn its attention to some of the other resistances noted in its original inventory.

It may be said, in summary, that the Council has been an agency for drawing the theoreticians and the practitioners of education together, for exchanging ideas for carrying out co-operative research, and for jointly attacking problems. This spells out "co-operative planning for improved education for youth."

Group XII—Ballroom

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INTERROGATORS AND CONSULTANTS:

Mrs. Obziene M. Walker, Principal, Banneker Junior High School, Washington, D. C.

Wallace Ludden, Principal, Rome Junior High School, Rome, New York

Promising Administrative Practices in Junior High Schools

BERTRICE N. BAXTER

Student Body Organizations and Functioning

ALL youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society and be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and as citizens of the state and nation." This is one of the ten imperative needs of youth which we have been discussing during the last several years.

We have many offerings in our curricular and co-curricular activities which tend to help youth satisfy this need. We have the teaching of United States History and Civics. We have training for appreciation of our national heritage. We have instruction in the meaning and purposes of our ideology. But I would propose that, through our student body organization, we have a method by which youth learns "the rights and duties of a citizen" by becoming a citizen in his own school. He learns to do by doing. He learns to vote by voting. He learns to choose leaders by choosing. He learns to recognize problems, to discuss and study them, to attempt to solve them, and finally to enforce regulations which he has had a part in formulating.

In general, then, we may assume that through our student body organizations we are training for a better citizenship and a keener social intelligence. I should like to suggest that a genuinely democratic student organization, with a governing body which is truly functional, must possess certain basic factors.

1. *A student governing body should be representative*

Every student in a school should have, through his representative, a voice in making decisions pertaining to student activities. Every representative, as a leader and law-maker, should be aware of his responsibility to his constituents. His constituents should be a class, a club, a homeroom, or any designated groups of students who elect him from the group. It is important for him to realize that any vote he casts shall represent the decision of his constituents and not his own opinion. It follows then, that to be effective, lines of communication must be kept open between the governing body and the constituent groups. The constituents should feel free to propose problems for

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consideration, they should have an opportunity to discuss the problems, and they should be informed of the final decision made by the governing body.

2. *A student governing body should be a governing body in fact—not in fiction*

There is nothing which disillusion youth more quickly than to be given a pseudo problem to solve. There are many aspects of school policy and management which can be developed as well, and many times even better, by student groups. One of the most clearly defined trends in student body organization is the participation of these groups in the actual spending of their money. For many years student body money was spent practically entirely at the direction of the principal or faculty group and student body organizations, if they had anything at all to say, more or less served as a rubber stamp. Nowadays, the auditors exert continual pressure to see to it that student financial councils have an active part in the spending and planning of student body funds. This procedure, of course, is replete with learning possibilities as it means budgeting income, planning for needed services, entertainment, or equipment, etc., and weighing relative values of needs for which money must be spent.

One is impressed with the sagacity of boys and girls in weighing the arguments for and against the purchase of specific items. Their deliberations included the immediacy of the needs and, to a surprising degree, the long term values involved. Questions such as "How long will this last?" "How many people will be able to use this before it is worn out?" "Will this item become antiquated or obsolete in a short time?" If there is proper rapport between students and teachers, the student governing body may not only practice the tools of citizenship: group discussion, the ballot, techniques of inquiry, group action, etc., but it will practice such tools in solving problems which are vital and real to the students and to their constituents. It is discouraging to a student organization to have its decisions completely vetoed or entirely ignored. It is even possible that within this framework students should be allowed to make mistakes, and to suffer at least some of the consequences. They should know that they will be given a free rein in making decisions and in enforcing regulations within their area of responsibility.

3. *A student governing body should have its area of responsibility determined*

In every school there are three areas of responsibility. The area in which the administrators take complete responsibility, the area in which the teacher has a responsibility, and the very large area over which students rule and within which students may act. These three areas should be determined at the outset by teachers and administrators, or better still by a co-operative study in which teachers, administrators, and students are involved. If this is carefully done, the necessity of administrative vetoes almost reaches a vanishing point. On the other hand, nothing is more crushing than to have administration decide at some point in the student deliberation on a particular prob-

lem, that after all it lies outside the scope of student work and is the business of the administration only.

4. *A student governing body should be given status*

It should feel the importance of its activities. It should know that it is valuable, so valuable that it may even meet on school time. In some schools it has become a leadership class. In others it is a school council, or school senate, or a school house of representatives. Skills in making democracy work could well be the most important offering in school curriculum. Real education, for the citizen of tomorrow, takes place when the student is actively engaged in work, the aims and purposes of which he himself feels are important.

5. *A student governing body should be dynamic*

It should be constantly evaluating its processes. Students should be free to scrap any policy or procedure within their jurisdiction which has become obsolete. No part of the student organization should continue to exist if there is no longer a need for it. The governing body should be deleting and adding to its structure, growing and developing at all times to be effective.

In addition to these five important factors there is one added point I should like to make. The basic purposes of student body organization should be interpreted to students, to teachers, and, where necessary, to administrators. The optimum of results will not be possible unless all three groups are aware of the fundamental, underlying purposes of student body organizations. Not only must they be interpreted, but interpretation should be reiterated frequently so that the goals toward which this group is moving shall be kept before it at all times.

We must be aware of the fact that the final solution of a problem is of much less importance than the learnings which take place while the problem is being solved. For learnings do take place in a student as he assumes his position as a leader, knowing that he carries great responsibility in representing his constituents, knowing that he must identify problems for the school, study them scientifically without emotion, solve them, and finally determine means for implementing his solution. He knows that with his responsibility will come authority but he also knows that his authority lies within his own area of responsibility which at no time will trespass upon the other two areas of responsibility within the school.

Perhaps it is too much to hope that our student body organizations throughout the schools of the United States are moving into the field of "making democracy work," but we shall continue to have our student body organizations and continue to feel that training for citizenship is the basic purpose of such organizations.

Promising Administrative Practices in Junior High Schools

L. C. MILES

Exploratory Activities in the Junior-High School

THE Junior High School was established because of a conviction that the needs of boys and girls between the ages of eleven and fifteen years were not adequately taken care of with the 8-4 plan of organization.

The early adolescent is best characterized by change. During this period of growth, the school has a great guidance function to perform.

The intellectual, physical, and emotional developments must be watched over to see that they are not warped. The social outlook of early adolescents is rapidly changing and must be safeguarded, as also are the interests and potentialities which are most significant in determining future occupations and pursuits.

The Junior High School, particularly, is a period of transition, exploration, and experimentation when many new and strange vistas are unfolding before the young adolescent. Professor Arthur J. Jones of the University of Pennsylvania clarifies this point as follows; "The unique function of any school should be based upon the needs peculiar to the group of pupils whom it attempts to serve. The needs for preparation for the next step, for exploration and experimentation, are dominant and determine the function of the junior high school. It should be said that there are all too many institutions called junior high schools that are not conscious of this function, and still others that are so circumscribed by the requirements of the senior high school on the one hand, and by the carry-over of elementary school objectives and methods on the other, that they are unable to function as they should."

Regarding the purpose of the junior high school, Dr. R. B. Buckingham states, "And it was a progressive curriculum which the proponents of the junior high school demanded. Four great ideas were set forth as distinctive in the new organization. They are as vital today as they were when the junior high school began, and they are even more widely accepted than they were then. These four concepts were guidance, exploration, adaptation to individual differences, and integration of subject matter."

Exploration, concept number two, as listed by Dr. Buckingham, is significant enough to be in a class by itself, yet it is so broad in its scope and purpose that it penetrates the entire curriculum, and certainly should be a dominant factor in the organization and administration of a good guidance program.

A committee on guidance appointed by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals sums up the adolescent explorer as follows: "The adolescent explorer passes through consecutive stages on his journey of exploration during his junior high school years. First, he adjusts himself to his new environment that he may learn how most effectively to benefit by his

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experiences; second, he enters upon his exploratory activities; third, he makes a tentative selection of an educational placement which makes a particular appeal to his individual interests; and fourth, after the testing of his choice, he undertakes the initial stage of his differentiation into a curriculum group. When the foregoing steps have been taken, he is ready for specialized training of his choice in the senior high school." From the foregoing, it would appear that the entire program of the junior high school should be exploratory in nature if this objective is to be realized.

After all, the students spend most of their time in the regular subject classes, English, mathematics, social science, *etc.*, and to do the job well, each teacher has a very definite responsibility in seeing that his class is making a contribution to the general program of exploration.

In the elementary school, the concern has been largely with the mastery of skills, commonly called the tools of learning, but as the child approaches the junior high school level, the emphasis is gradually changed to one of investigation and experimentation.

Practice in reading is still carried on, but on a wider scale than before. Reading becomes integrated with the general languages in particular, and with all subjects in general. If the transition is made properly and efficiently, the process must of necessity be gradual. Because of individual differences in varying degrees, some remedial work will still be necessary in reading as well as in other areas. Social living courses, or core-curriculum planning, helps out very materially at this point in the transition.

Because of the unique organization of the subjects, such as general English, general mathematics, general science, social studies, *etc.*, there are abundant opportunities for the discovery of special abilities and interests. The tendency toward broader areas in place of specialized subjects sets the stage for unlimited exploration and experimentation.

Even though these possibilities are present, it must be kept in mind that for many reasons, such as tradition, facilities, methods of instruction, and, not the least of all, reluctance or unpreparedness on the part of the teacher, we can't depend entirely on the regular courses to provide adequate exploratory experience for the junior high students.

In most of our junior high schools, the time is pretty well occupied with required subjects, making it difficult to offer special courses where planning for exploratory activities is purposeful rather than incidental. Realizing this fact, many schools are shortening the periods from sixty minutes to fifty-minute periods and adding an extra period for activities. Others are taking one period out of the regular six periods for exploratory projects.

Short courses from six weeks to a semester are being offered by many schools during such periods, thus providing numerous exploratory experiences during the junior high years. They are made elective, which gives the student an opportunity to choose. This is also a very worth-while experience for students of junior high age. These short exploratory courses are unlimited in

number, and if properly organized and scheduled will aid considerably in discovering new talents and interests.

Dr. Eugene S. Briggs stresses the altogether too common weakness in teaching these short courses when he said, "It was the tendency at first to teach too much subject matter and facts. The teachers, not being accustomed to teaching directly about the activities of life, confined themselves to recorded tables and lists of vocations, but soon they began to see that the important thing was for the teacher to allow the pupil to learn about these great fields of humanity by actually living in replica, 'getting out and getting under,' 'shooting the trouble,' making 'the plea' in a courtroom, producing something of value in a shop."

In the Cedar City Junior High School, after a decade of experimenting with varied plans and procedures, the program is progressing satisfactorily with a combination plan which includes the regular school courses (five periods) and a special period for exploratory activities.

As far as facilities will permit, each class is made exploratory in nature where the teacher directs the activities and the students participate in projects relative to the area involved. In the general languages, for example, students spend much of their time preparing radio programs which are broadcast to other students for practice, and once a week are presented through KSUB to the public. We use the central sound system in the school which is also connected to the local radio station so that the programs originate in the school.

The eleven o'clock period is utilized entirely for exploratory activities. These activities are similar to the short course plan in many ways, but we have preferred calling them exploratory clubs. The mere fact that they are not listed as regular classes makes a significant difference in the type of planning and procedure used.

Each teacher, with the exception of the counselor, sponsors an activity. This period lends itself to contract and job work rather than "lessons," and students are given considerable freedom to visit the counselor during the hour.

Grade levels are broken down and in many cases seventh, eighth, and ninth grade students are working along together. This would be especially true in the fields of music and dramatics.

The type of activities vary from year to year, and include such areas as the following: photography, taxidermy, wild life, dramatics, music, journalism, merchandising, banking, ceramics, lapidary, radio, aeronautics, model plane, art crafts, sewing crafts, speech, leather crafts, printing, decorating, library practice, Spanish, dancing arts, *etc.*

After a few years of experimentation, we have found that this period is not only valuable for exploration, but serves the school well in helping to co-ordinate many of its' activities and functions. For example, the photography club does an exceptional job of developing a yearbook for the student body. It also handles all the photography work in the school. The banking group

has full charge of the savings and thrift program in the school, which includes the selling of stamps and bonds and other business activities in the school.

The journalism club takes over entirely the business of reporting all school activities to the local and state papers, and edits and publishes a weekly school paper besides printing all of our programs and necessary forms for current school use.

The dramatics unit, after considerable observation and study of a variety of plays, will prepare and present one or more plays to the student body and public.

Dr. Elbert D. Fretwell, formerly of Columbia University, speaking of extracurricular activities, once said, "If an activity is worth doing, it is worthy of regular school time." This bit of philosophy has been basic in developing and administering the exploratory program at the Cedar City Junior High School.

Promising Administrative Practices in Junior High Schools

HENRY ANTELL

Teacher Councils as an Aid in School Administration

WHAT IS SUPERVISION?

Educators have been weaned on the postulate that supervision is a co-operative process. Beyond that there have been as many interpretations of the concept as there probably are supervisors. It is a catch-all phrase which seems easy to follow. The principal who consults his teachers before assigning classes for the year is practicing it. Another who sets up committees to make up yard schedules, arrange assembly programs, distribute and inventory books also feels that his supervision is co-operative. Still another who carries on formal observations of teacher work only on invitation places himself in this class. So it goes. Many more facets of co-operative supervisor-teacher effort may be cited.

We should, before we go on, emphasize that the values of co-operation are so obvious that they need no defense or explanation. We assume that it is the best way to administer a school, just as it is the best way to administer any democratically conceived institution. It is the interpretation that needs clarification. After that we need to discuss the manner of implementation.

While procedures in which the supervisor calls on his teachers, collectively and individually, to assist with some phase of administration are inherently worth-while, they do not go far enough. Some of the most enlightened authorities in our ranks delegate many of their chores to teachers. This does not make their supervision a co-operative, a joint venture. Merely sharing in the many extra classroom stints does not make of the teachers partners in administration.

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A TEACHERS COUNCIL ANSWERS THE NEED

It is the sharing by the principal with his teachers of the responsibility for making decisions which really pushes supervision forward into a realm of respectability. School problems constantly arise. Changes in educational philosophy call for a re-evaluation of existing practices with possible changes in procedure. This is an ongoing process. Answers are not easy. Certainly the principal is not the fount of wisdom. If he wants the best answers he must use the best thinking of the staff in a systematic and thorough way. In a comprehensive study made several years ago by this author, it was found that teachers valued participation in the formulation of school policy above all other methods for improving their teaching performance. Good morale is probably the most essential determinant of good teaching. Certainly, good morale is fostered if teachers are permitted to participate in decisions that affect their work. Once morale is kindled and constantly boosted, teaching really becomes that creative act which we have long hoped it would be.

A democratically elected teachers council offers to the principal the best practical means for tapping and using teacher thinking in determining what decisions to make and in administering his school in a sound manner. It also is the answer for making of supervision a real co-operative or joint process.

HOW DO WE START?

Probably the soundest way to start such a council in school is to deal with the entire subject of supervision and councils at a conference. Sentiment for such a council should be there. The discussion should lead to the selection by the faculty of a small group from their number to explore the possibilities and to set up the machinery for initiating it. This small committee may be encouraged to visit and to talk with councils in other junior high schools. The principal should stand ready with pertinent educational literature. His enthusiasm and his knowledge of just what he hopes to realize from the work of the council are vital for a successful start.

Recommendations from the committee will include a scheme for electing the membership of the council. Five or seven members are best for proper functioning. They may be elected at large, from different grade groups, or in any other manner the teachers decide. Another recommendation should give a few of the general responsibilities of the council. Later on, maybe in a couple of years, a constitution may be projected. It isn't necessary, however, at the start; nor is it advisable. Right from the beginning it should be emphasized that a teachers council is not an interest committee set up with the express purpose of improving the lot of teachers or of enhancing their social aspirations. This is only part of the job. Its chief purpose is to work with the school administration to give the children the finest educational program creative effort can evolve. It naturally follows that attention will have to be paid to the welfare of teachers, their salary demands, their individual problems if they are to be expected to function at an optimum level. The big task, though, the major responsibility of the council, is to help in determining

what policies and what administrative routines will assure a highly successful school program.

It is hoped that the added satisfactions that accrue to a teacher in a school where a teachers council works well and in which the teacher feels she is a vital cog in the administrative machinery will heighten her concern over the educational program. This will lead to whole-hearted participation in the workings of the council. In other words the teachers are really helping themselves, despite the fact that at first glance it may seem they are pulling the supervisory chesnuts out of the fire.

In the beginning stages, there will be discouraging times for the principal because there will seem to be an interminable series of gripes coming to the surface. It is the natural reaction in a group that finally finds an open forum for its heretofore latent frustrations. While discouraging, it is healthy. While the council should meet as often as it feels the need, a regular meeting of the council with the principal should be held at least once a month, probably oftener at the beginning. It is at these joint meetings that there are exchanges of opinion and airing of teacher reaction and forward looking suggestions by the principal.

WE MOVE ALONG

During the first year progress may seem very slow. It may even seem as though the principal has stirred up a hornet's nest. With time, though, the gripes become fewer. Slowly the principal places before the council some real problems. He wants to know what topics should be taken at the coming faculty meetings. How should they be handled? programming time is at hand; what specific principles should govern the allocation of classes and rooms? What schemes do they have for improving student life in the school? Are report cards to parents adequate? Do they help us? Could the council devise some other kind of card to suit the purpose better? Are our guidance services doing the job they should? These are only a few of the problems. They will not all be thrown at the council with one fell swoop, of course.

Part of each faculty conference may be taken by the council for discussion of its progress or for an airing of some topic. Special meetings may be held which the principal need not even be invited to attend.

All committees of teachers should be under the jurisdiction of the council and subservient to it. Salary, pension, curriculum, welfare, and publicity may well be the concern of small teacher committees selected by the council.

Already it is observed that supervision begins to assume extensive ramifications. Many different things are going on. Unless the supervisor himself knows the direction in which he is traveling, and unless he can keep track of all the diverse activities, the council will die a-borning. It is he who tactfully directs the work at the beginning with a group that still is groping at the mechanics of this new process. There is many a time when the supervisor wonders why he got himself into such a predicament when he could have taken an "easier" way.

SOME LEADING QUESTIONS

In any discussion involving teacher councils as an aid in school administration, the question of the responsibility of the principal always rears its head. And well it might! The principal is responsible for the health and safety of his pupils, as well as for their instruction. Dare he permit his teachers to make a decision that may lead to pupil injury? The problem really is not quite so difficult as it seems. The teachers council is no more likely to suggest a bad decision than is the principal. If you don't think this is so, try giving some possibilities.

Fundamentally, all school decisions must be in conformance with the by-laws of the Board of Education. This is one of the first things the council learns. Directives of the Board,¹ as well as the by-laws, form a frame of reference within which all administration is carried on. At the beginning there is a bit of tugging between principal and council on matters which he may feel are strictly his province. The exchanges between the two fortunately result in a more basic understanding of the responsibilities of administration. Time is on the side of the principal who believes in the worth-whileness of the scheme and is patient in awaiting results.

It is well to utter a caution at this stage. The teachers council does not usurp the prerogatives of the principal. Its deliberations center about any or all matters pertaining to school organization and administration. Its recommendations to the principal should receive his prompt and serious attention. If he feels that it would be inadvisable to accept a recommendation, he should support his point with adequate documentation. The council members will resent their being used as a facade, but they will be quick to respond favorably to considerate and dignified treatment.

One responsibility that the council can quickly take over is the faculty conference. It can pick the particular topic, set up the *modus operandi*, mimeograph the agenda, have a teacher-recorder take notes and be in complete charge. The conference will then be a real teachers' conference, dealing with subjects that are germane to teachers' classroom problems. The principal at this conference might be classed as the resource specialist and may also be a participant.

There is the all-important question of time for the council members to meet. Time may be provided by giving them each a common unassigned period. If council elections are held early enough in the spring for the next school year, the program committee may be able quite simply to arrange the period when the members are all free. A conscientious group will require and use much more time, but having a regularly scheduled weekly hour assures the continuity that is necessary for success.

CONCLUSION

Other problems that arise in the formation of a teachers council exist. We can go on and on, citing them and giving possible solutions. They have a way, though, of settling themselves if only the principal is anxious enough for its success.

Now to come back to our original premise that supervision is a co-operative, joint venture in which teachers and principal work and plan together so as to give children the finest educational program collective effort can evolve. The best effort of teachers will not be forthcoming unless there is engendered within them a responsibility for the success of the school program and a feeling that their thinking is necessary in the solution of vital school problems. A creative program is directly proportional to teacher morale. Our task is to heighten this morale. There is no better over-all method for doing this job than through a democratic teachers council.

Promising Administrative Practice in Junior High Schools

SAM WALDMAN

The Experienced Teacher in an In-Service Training Program

ONE of the major administrative concerns at the beginning of any school year is the new teacher just out of college, full of enthusiasm, confident of his ability to put his recently acquired knowledge into practical use in the classroom. Fortunately, time is the school administrator's chief ally in developing the new teacher into a competent teacher. The school principal, however, feels it his personal obligation to nudge time into a faster pace. What in-service training program, the principal asks, will most efficiently change the novice into a confident, competent teacher?

The principal and his staff can and ought to be of great service. There is another aid, valuable and available. The five to eight most experienced and most efficient teachers in a building have an accumulated competence that should not be over-looked in an in-service training program for new teachers.

Let me briefly comment on such a program in our school. Fifteen first and second year probationary teachers selected eight experienced teachers in our building with whom the new teachers felt they would prefer to informally discuss perplexing school problems. A series of meetings were held throughout the last school year between the experienced teachers and the new teachers. The principal began the first meeting, informally explaining its purpose. Then he left. Neither the principal nor any member of his staff was present at any subsequent meeting.

One year's experience with this plan leads us to believe that basically it is a sound one. However, some modifications in the plan will be made this year, dictated to us by one year's experience with it. Last year there was no agenda carefully planned for these meetings. No chairman was chosen from the experienced teachers. Each of the meetings was, therefore, a "bull session" that edged out most school problems except the imminent one to all new teachers—the problem of discipline.

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In the light of last year's experience, it is felt that the first meeting between the experienced teachers and the new teachers should be held relatively early in the school term, and that it should be a casual "bull session," wherever it might lead. All subsequent meetings, however, should be carefully arranged with an agenda of specific matters to be discussed. There will also be a chairman chosen from the experienced teachers. This chairman assumes the usual functions of a chairman of any group meeting, particularly planning to get the non-talkative, experienced teacher to share his knowledge with the others.

What specific problems disturb new teachers? These will be on the agenda for future meetings. Some that come to mind are planning a teaching unit, pupil motivation, techniques of an oral recitation, and the personality of the teacher. Less important problems in the eyes of the administration might be school routine and various school aids available to new teachers.

The in-service training program of new teachers becomes a greater problem when the teacher feels that the less important problems mentioned are more significant than the major ones. Let me be more specific. A new teacher may frequently feel that such routine school tasks as reporting attendance, care of books, and reports to be submitted are of more immediate significance than planning a teaching unit or critical self-analysis. It is, to continue, a more complex matter to counsel with a new teacher who feels that his unexpected discipline problems have developed because he is unfamiliar with school routine. Up to a certain point, an escape valve such as this is desirable. However, growth appears to be more certain and more permanent when basic problems are faced, analyzed, attacked.

The new teacher is continually disturbed by the behavior of his pupils. Frequently, the beginner does not genuinely feel that skill in planning a teaching unit, carefully planned pupil motivation, clever techniques of an oral recitation—plus keen self-analysis of his own personality—are the best weapons to use in attacking undesirable behavior patterns of pupils.

Experienced teachers know all this. The new teachers will learn of this from the administrative staff. They will hear it again when they meet with the experienced teachers. This double-barrelled approach has proved more effective than any we have used before. Some other advantages in using experienced teachers in the in-service training program for new teachers are:

First, the new teacher is more likely to reveal his real problems to a fellow teacher, since he may hesitate to mention his weaknesses to an administrator.

Second, to "confess" a weakness has considerable psychological release value.

Third, the discovery by the new teacher that others are perplexed with the same burdens lightens the psychological load.

Fourth, new teachers develop friendships with experienced teachers. They visit with experienced teachers between these scheduled meetings, asking for advice on matters that demand immediate action.

Fifth, the experienced teacher re-vitalizes his own energies at these meetings. He feels that he is doing something genuinely worthwhile for fellow teachers and for the school's educational program.

As the writer thinks of the disadvantages, he is reminded of a character out of one of James Thurber's recent fairy tales.

There was a lady in the fable who, when she wept, instead of weeping tears, wept precious jewels. Of course, when her feelings were only surface feelings and not deeply felt, she wept, instead of tears, cheap costume jewelry.

If this needs interpreting, let me suggest that a major disadvantage of the discussed plan occurs when an experienced teacher, cynical and entrenched in traditional patterns, is chosen for this committee.

Occasionally, a new teacher, fighting for his place in the educational sun, may monopolize the discussion. Again, a particularly insecure teacher may not discuss his problems at all. This latter may not be too serious since frequently at these meetings problems are "uncovered" rather than "confessed."

The new teacher knows and the experienced teacher knows that no individual name will be mentioned to the administration. The specific problems of the specific teacher remain the knowledge of the group meeting and this knowledge is not passed on to anyone. However, the experienced teachers meet with the administration to discuss general problems of new teachers so that administration may, through additional knowledge, strengthen its contribution to the in-service training program.

It seems just plain common sense that the administrative staff should solicit and use the proved talents of experienced teachers in an in-service training program for new teachers. We, in our building, owe and give sincere thanks to our experienced teachers for the help they are giving our beginning teachers.

Group XIII—South Room

CHAIRMAN: *Mrs. Newton P. Leonard*, First Vice-president, National Congress of Parents and Teachers; Providence, Rhode Island
Joint Meeting with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers

Teacher-Student-Parent Co-operation in Secondary Schools

ERNEST O. MELBY

YESTERDAY I chanced to read an issue of the *Saturday Review of Literature* which was called "America and the Mind of Europe," published under the date of January 13. I commend it to you as one of the most penetrating and stimulating discussions of American foreign relations and related problems that I have seen. When I finished reading this particular journal, I asked myself these questions: Just where are we with education? What is the

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responsibility of education, and what chance have we that we can meet the responsibility?

It seems to me perfectly clear that regardless of how we feel about our present international position (and there are many feelings about it) there is one thing that is true: nobody can say, as of this present minute, whether the free institutions that we have had in this country and in some other parts of the Western world are really going to survive. They are hanging in the balance, and I believe that we in America do not realize in how hazardous a position they are. I believe further that the biggest mistake we make is thinking that Russia is our major problem and that if we only had Russia "laid out cold" everything would be all right. This is not so. Even if Russia were completely defeated today with not a single effective military means at her command, the position of freedom in this world would still be very, very hazardous.

This is a fact that is hard for us in America to realize, and we just do not want to face it. It is unpleasant to face it. I am emphasizing it at this point because I think many of you will go out and disagree. You will not face it, and your people at home will not face it. We do not want to face it, I repeat, because it is unpleasant. Values that we hold in this country, or have held, are a set of moral and spiritual values demanding certain things in our behavior and our lives that we do not want to do. We want our comforts and our luxuries and our gadgets. We want our business as usual and all that kind of thing. We do not want to face up to the fact that hundreds of millions of people around the world are starving and that nothing effective can be done in saving freedom unless we meet that starvation—a starvation not only of the body but of the soul.

I merely want to get that point before you because that is the context I want for whatever thinking I do about education in these days. The context is that freedom as you and I have experienced it in this country is in a most hazardous position, and that no responsibility of the schools or any other social agency compares in importance with the problem of saving our freedom. That is the all-important thing, beside which all other considerations are of relative unimportance. Our problem, then, is to build the kind of education that can save freedom.

If I thought that the only thing we had with which to save freedom was schools, I think I would run up a white flag right now. I do not have much confidence any more in what schools alone can do. I think we have enormously exaggerated the power of schools in our society. We teachers, and to some extent the parents under our leadership, are wonderful at kidding ourselves. We kid ourselves into believing that somehow we can carry on inside of schoolhouses some sort of process that is going to so change boys and girls that they are going to go out and change the world.

We ought to know by now that it works just the other way around. It is the world that changes the boys and girls, as we have seen it happen over and over again. The power of the community is being attested in America

and all over the world, the power of the community in its impact on boys and girls and men and women. Until we realize this, we shall have people like Alvin C. Eurich coming in, as he did on Saturday (I hear from the press—I was not here), and saying that education has failed. Of course it has failed. In a sense it is always going to fail, yet in that statement lies a terrible injustice. Education fails because we are asking it to do something which in the very nature of things it cannot do. It is never going to succeed, it cannot succeed through schools alone. It will never succeed until we realize that the school is merely one of many educational agencies. Once we recognize that fact, then there is a chance for education to succeed, there is a chance for the school to hold up its head as an important agency. If that is right, then we must think about this whole problem of how to mobilize the resources of the community. I get more worried the more I hear people talk about it because I am afraid that we teachers are constitutionally ill-equipped to undertake this mobilization.

WHAT IS A COMMUNITY SCHOOL?

Let me illustrate. You hear people talk about a community school. What is a community school? It is a school that renders certain services to the community. That is not what the people want. Of course they would like the services, but what the parents and the people of this country really want is to share in the determining of educational policy. They have things they want to say to us. They have parts they want to play. They want to participate in this policy determination.

We teachers go to the parents and we say, "Here are things we want to do to your children. Now help us to do them." The parents are not impressed at all. They never will be impressed with that kind of approach. Yet that has been the vein in which most of our community participation has been carried on: "We have designs on the children. Now help us with these designs." The parents do not like it. They are not interested. It leaves them cold. Somebody comes along and talks about public relations. We say we have to explain to the parents what we are doing in the schools. "We know what we are doing. Now sit and listen to me while I tell you about it." Do you see? They do not want to listen. They have things they want to say to us. They sit down and they say to us, "Listen to me for a little while." But we cannot listen. We have talked so long and taught so long that we cannot listen. Teachers are among the poorest listeners in the world. We have the answers.

There is something else about this situation. Because we have lived inside of schoolhouses so long and had so few contacts with the rest of the community, we do not understand the richness of the resources of American communities. I have had some experience in this area that has been to me exceedingly embarrassing, and I am a "singed cat" in this whole matter. I have all kinds of scars on me that are a result of the fact that I did not sense the richness of community resources.

I will give you an example. I spent four years in Montana as president of a small state university. One spring, people in my office who were plan-

ning summer school said to me, "You know we ought to have a course in arts and crafts," and I asked, "What kind of arts and crafts?" They replied, "One thing we certainly ought to teach is weaving." Then I asked, "Who in the world can teach weaving?" And their response was, "Oh, there's nobody around here that can teach it, but you can get somebody in the East. Here is an address. If you write to this person, he can recommend somebody." So I sat down in typical professor fashion, and I wrote a letter to the person whose name had been given me. In a week or so I received this answer: "One of the greatest authorities on weaving in the United States lives just a few miles from Missoula, Montana. She edits a magazine. She is an internationally famous person in this field." I had not known she was there. I had never heard of her. I knew nothing about her. However, I called her by telephone and asked her to come in. So she came in, offered a course in weaving, and did a wonderful job.

In the four years that I was in Montana I learned by rather embarrassing experiences like that how rich were the resources of Montana outside of the university. We were not using them. We were just not using them. And every community is like that. We have to learn how to use these resources in the community, because using these resources is a far better answer than going out and explaining to people. For instance, having a parent come into the school to tell about a trip that he took abroad is a better way to tell the parents about the school than to go out and talk to them saying, "Now sit down and listen while I tell you about the school."

But there is something more than just resources. You know that there is a lot of talk about adult education. Yet, in spite of all the talk and all the self-sacrificing effort, formal classes in adult education never rang any bells in America. The American people do not want to be educated.

If I propose to you that you should go to school, you people here this morning, that implies that I think you are not already educated. Do you see? In other words, you suffer a loss of ego. But if I propose to you that you share with your fellow-citizens in the improvement of life in your community, that you help with a housing program, that you help with a bond-issue proposal, that you help to get a new zoning arrangement, and a hundred-and-one different things that you could do, and if you do share in such undertakings, you learn by doing these things more than you would learn in any course that you would take. Furthermore, instead of suffering a loss of ego from the experience, you have built up your ego because you shared in this work and you did something for your community.

That being the case, if I put all these things together, I am in this position. In the kind of a period that we are now living in, I have no time to fuss with methods of teaching reading, for instance. There are people who can work on that, but that to me is fiddling while Rome burns. I do not want to waste any time on the mechanistic, highly professional, technical educational questions. There may be people who are going to work on those, but right now the urgencies of the international scene are too great to allow

such activities. We cannot fuss around with that kind of stuff, for freedom is in danger and if we do not act, and act fast, we are not going to have it, and it will not make any difference how you teach reading.

I think that there is no way in the world to save the free institutions we have unless we get busy this very minute and mobilize every single resource in this country. We cannot leave any resource unused. All the talk about better public relations, about community schools, about community relations, and all that kind of thing, from my point of view, goes out the window, because it starts in the wrong place anyway. What we really need to do is to go to the people of these communities and say, "Look, let's see if we can find a way of helping every person in this community to make a contribution to a total community-wide program of education." If we do that, there is a chance we can win, perhaps not too great a chance, but there is a chance.

I just do not believe that we realize in this country how hazardous a position we are really in. It demands the best that we can give, the very best that we have—every parent, every citizen, every pupil, every teacher, every board member, everything we have, completely mobilized. If we love our freedom, as I think we do (though we are not as excited about it as we should be), we are going to go home and do something about this situation. If we do that all over America, we can win not only for ourselves but the world.

OUR DEMOCRATIC WAY OF LIFE

When I think of the problem of parent-teacher-pupil co-operation in that kind of context, then I find real motivation. Motivation is one of the things that a democracy needs.

Incidentally, have you ever stopped to think what a paradoxical position we are in, in this particular period? Here we are, possessed of the richest culture on earth—the whole Judaic-Christian tradition, for example, our emphasis on the worth and dignity of individual human beings. We have French revolutionary writing, British liberal tradition, the founding fathers in this country, two thousand years of Jesus Christ. All the Russians have is Karl Marx and dialectic materialism; yet they are beating us to the minds and hearts of men and women around the globe. I cannot understand it. The only way I can explain it is that they are teaching their miserable stuff with a religious fervor, and we are so lackadaisical about our democratic traditions, so indifferent, that we are not convincing.

We were in Korea as long as the Russians. We had just as good a chance to teach democracy to the South Koreans as the Russians had to teach Communism to the North Koreans. Why did we fail to do it? Why have we been less effective in Germany than the Russians have been? Because we do not have the zeal, and—what is more—we do not practice what we preach. We are being undermined in America and undermined abroad by our failure to practice our democracy at home. I know because I have traveled a good deal in other countries, and every time I talk about American democracy to somebody from one of these other countries he says, "Well, what about your treatment of the Negro?" Such things as this are used against us, and we are

never going to be convincing in the international scene until we practice at home what we preach. If we want democracy to live, we must vitalize it in the little places, right here at home. We must vitalize democracy at the grass roots, make it function in our homes and little communities; then it will live. And then, too, we will have such an experience with it that we will be convincing when we talk about it abroad.

This is a job—making freedom live—for the total communities of America, a job in which schools have a vital part to play, in which teachers have a vital role, in which parents have a vital role, in which pupils have a vital role. I think we are going to sit down around the table together and plan the whole undertaking. The moment that we do that and sense the imperative-ness, the urgencies of the situation in which we function, something is going to come to us out of that endeavor.

It is impossible to work with people in a community, as I have done a number of times now, without realizing the richness of the resources, without building a stronger faith in our free institutions and in the American people and human beings generally. We need now a greater and stronger faith than ever. The best way to build our faith is to work with people, because out of working with people we manage to acquire some realization of the power of the human spirit.

PANEL DISCUSSION TOPIC:

How Can These Three Groups Work Together As We Face the Decade Ahead of Us?

MODERATOR:

Lloyd S. Michael, Principal, District 202, Township High School, Evanston, Illinois

DISCUSSANTS:

Mrs. A. J. Nicely, Vice-President, Region II, National Congress of Parents and Teachers; Swannanoa, North Carolina
Mrs. A. J. Nicely, Vice-President, Region II, National Congress of Parents and Teachers; Erie, Pennsylvania.

C. Herbert Taylor, Principal, Cranston High School, Cranston, R. I.

Robert G. Hanna, Teacher, Senior High School, Mamaroneck, New York.

Frank Williams, Student, Garden City High School, Garden City, New York.

PANEL DISCUSSION: SUMMARY

CO-OPERATION among parents, teachers, and students should not be difficult since there is essentially no conflict among the aims of the three groups: all are trying to get from the student the best that is in him. The problem of getting together will be resolved if all develop attitudes of mutual respect. The most desirable sort of co-operation may be stimulated by working together on a community problem.

Trying to work together on such problems through organized community councils seems to have met with varied degrees of success. In one community a council made up of representatives of the regularly organized groups was reported as highly successful in everything it undertook. It held

the respect of the whole community and had no difficulty in raising money for its projects. In other communities, however, efforts at organizing such councils had failed for lack of interest or had proved of little worth partly because many organizations did not appoint real leaders as their representatives and partly because the organizations represented seemed to be interested mainly in a competitive race for membership. One weakness in the usual make-up of such a council lies in the failure to have representation from unorganized members of the community.

The chief problem in developing the sort of co-operation needed is getting the parents to come to the school. Since many parents hesitate to take the initiative, this becomes largely the responsibility of the teachers and the parent-teacher organizations. Open house for parents and student participation in programs are two of the best ways for bringing parents to the school. Such social gatherings are not the place for discussion of school or student problems. Appointments with teachers could be suggested at these meetings, however, if parents show a desire to discuss their children's school work. The all-important thing is to have the parents come to the school. Once they have come, for whatever purpose, it will be easier to get them to come again. More parents will be brought to the school if student participation in the programs is not limited to the so-called best or most gifted students. Varied programs (fashion shows, dramatic presentations, musical programs, debating, athletics, and whatever else the students are interested in) with a more inclusive student participation than is sometimes allowed would result in a better turnout from the community.

In some schools the barriers between school and home have been broken down by having parents and teachers put on plays together. Tests given to the parents by the teachers and to the teachers by the parents have also proved successful. The newspaper in one small town has made the community familiar with its school teachers through a series of pictures and feature articles about them as individuals—their educational backgrounds, hobbies, and other interesting facts. In talking about students as real persons, the fact must not be overlooked that parents and teachers are also real persons and should not think of themselves or each other as merely parts of the institutions of the home and the school.

The teachers themselves must take the initiative for making contact with those parents who never appear at the school. The teacher must recognize his obligation to go out of the schoolhouse into the community in which he teaches (even in an urban community where he may live in another place). If teachers and parents work together as citizens on community problems of importance to both groups, they may find it easier to discuss school problems together. The first problem for parents and teachers is getting acquainted.

Parents, on the other hand, and the community as a whole have an obligation toward their teachers. Even more important than raising teachers' salaries is raising their social status. Only if the teacher is respected as an important and socially accepted member of the community will it be possible to attract enough able young people to enter the teaching profession. Al-

though the teacher can help to sell both the school and himself to the community, raising his social status is necessarily a job for laymen. It is up to the parents and their friends in the community to show greater respect for their children's teachers.

At the same time, teachers should remember that mutual respect between students and teachers will do much toward ensuring community respect for the teachers. Much attention should be given also to the students' share in the whole problem of parent-teacher-student co-operation. Although students sometimes seem uninterested (they neglect to take home notices of parent-teacher meetings, often high-school boys and girls discourage their parents from coming to the school), a panel of students recently declared that only through consultation between parents and teachers could the students' best interests be served. The only answer to students' unfavorable attitude toward parent-teacher co-operation seems to be including the students themselves in more of the conferences and planning of meetings. Students as a whole would welcome a greater amount of participation in parent-teacher associations. It is their opinion that even PTA's with student representation on their committees do not keep student views sufficiently in mind, that it would be more democratic to allow students to share the planning of programs as well as to participate in them, that student co-operation could be gained in this way, and that, incidentally, students might often suggest better programs.

Students would doubtless welcome Dean Melby's recommendation of bringing in community speakers from outside the school for special contributions; furthermore, the students could help in mobilizing such community resources since they often know the community better than their parents do.

It is a question whether high-school PTA's should use different techniques from those of PTA's with younger students. PTA's should probably work *with* the youngster whether he is in kindergarten or the twelfth grade.

The three groups under discussion might find common ground in establishing the right point of view toward health and toward military service. We should place a real premium on health (for instance, we might reduce the period of military training for the physically fit). We should somehow convince young people that service to this country is a privilege as well as an obligation.

Certain European students have commented on the existence among American students of too much freedom with too little concurrent responsibility. On the other hand, an intelligent student from China has commented favorably on the general concern throughout America about the individual as contrasted with the lack of such concern in the countries of Asia. This concern, this respect for the individual, which is part of our democratic heritage, is something on which we can all build our America and our world.

To beat Communism, we must emphasize more than we have done in the past our heritage of democracy, and we must practice our belief in human brotherhood. Our total culture, our total education must teach these democratic values so that they are translated into realities of everyday living. Co-operation among parents, teachers, and students along democratic lines is one way to demonstrate to Asia and Europe that our way of life is best.

First General Session

Saturday, February 10, 1951, 11:00 A. M., Ballroom

PRESIDING: *W. L. Spencer*, Professor of Secondary Education, Huntingdon College, Montgomery, Alabama; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Following the *Presentation of Colors* by the Freeport Junior-Senior High School, Freeport, New York; the singing of *The Star Spangled Banner*; and *Invocation* by The Rev. John P. Coleman, Rector, Saint Philip's Church, Brooklyn, New York, the Band from Freeport Junior-Senior High School, Freeport, New York, presented a short musical program.

Greetings were presented by William Jansen, Superintendent of Schools, New York, New York; and Mary E. Meade, Principal, Washington Irving High School, New York, New York; Past President, High-School Principals Association of New York City; Co-Chairman, New York Convention Committee. These were followed by an address by Alvin C. Eurich.

Our Responsibility for Youth

ALVIN C. EURICH

I AM happy to meet with you at the opening of the 35th Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. No matter how often and how loudly some of us in higher education differ with you, one thing is certain: we would have no colleges — nor indeed any students — if it were not for the secondary schools and for the sound way in which you have prepared students for college and for life generally. I say most sincerely that we appreciate your efforts; we hope we are living up to the standards which you have set for us; and we too shall try to do even better in the years ahead.

The last 35 years, the life span of your Association, has been a period of tremendous progress. We are all familiar with the material manifestations of this progress in terms of bigger and more efficient machines, bigger and better housing, and bigger — and in most respects, better — government.

There has also been stirring progress during this period in education. We have a more effective educational program in this country, we are reaching more people, we are making better use of our human resources; in short, we are turning out more capable citizens today than we were in 1916.

And yet no matter how much better we are doing today than we have done before, we are obviously not doing enough. The dangers which confront free peoples everywhere are indeed the best evidence that we are not fully meeting our obligations to our society and most particularly to our youth who will become the leaders of tomorrow.

Alvin C. Eurich is President of the State University of New York, Albany, New York.

Certainly, regardless of our inclination, when we deal with our responsibility for youth in a changing world we need to take a long range approach. We might even say to ourselves, "Suppose we had fought World War III and won it, what kind of a world would we have?" It is that world for which we are preparing youth *now*.

For, though at times it may seem dubious, the world will go on. Remember Carl Sandburg?

The people will live on
The learning and blundering people will live on
They will be tricked and sold and again sold
And go back to the nourishing earth for footholds,
The people so peculiar in renewal and comeback,
You can't laugh off their capacity to take it.
The mammoth rests between his cyclonic dramas.

Certainly one of the most serious concerns of thinking people at present is how to have and to keep emotional and mental stability in these turbulent years in which we live today and which certainly lie ahead.

Often many of us tend to become discouraged with the prospects for humanity and civilization. The failures of our society in the economic and political and social areas at times appear disastrous and insuperable. And yet we cannot afford to forget that whatever lack of hope we may exhibit, or indeed may even feel, is inevitably transmitted to our youth. And it is these same youth on whom all of us place our hopes for the future. If we as adults could somehow combine youth's confidence and self-assurance with our own wisdom and experience, we might ourselves approach the problems of today with the forceful maturity we need.

Out of experience we would know that a world of crisis is not new. I find it difficult, in fact, to recall any extended period during my own lifetime when we were not living in what the phrase-makers of today would have called "a crisis." The first World War, the sharp depression that followed, the insecure and delusive heights of the mid-20's, the depths of 1929 to 1933, Hitler's move into the Rhineland and the five year war of nerves, the second World War, the gigantic domestic problems of our nation since 1945, and now the sudden awareness of the Russian threat, have followed one another in rapid succession. During each of these periods we heard the doctrine of despair. But somehow with our basic democratic beliefs, with the wisdom of experience and with the hopefulness of youth, we emerged from each of these periods a greater people and a more powerful nation.

To be sure the crisis of today is different. It is bigger, it is more far-reaching, and we have come to recognize that it affects each of us much more immediately than the crises of thirty years ago. I believe it is no exaggeration to say that never in the history of this nation have we faced such a grave period.

I would like to be able to state here that never in our history have we been so prepared to deal with this crisis. I am afraid, however, that this is not the case. And this is where I am afraid, too, that we as educators must accept

a major share of the responsibility for our past failure and must be prepared to re-examine our entire educational program.

We find in this nation, as indeed throughout the entire world, tremendous unrest. As we have increased and improved our whole intellectual maturity, we have also seen our mental hospital population, our divorce rates, our suicide rates, our delinquency and crime rates climb sharply. Nor is there any evidence to show that there are fewer neuroses and psychoses among our "educated" than among our "uneducated" citizens. Everything points to the conclusion that in this area we are failing miserably in our homes, in our elementary and secondary schools, and in our colleges and universities. This may be a cause as well as an effect of the current social, political, and economic ills of mankind.

What is it then which we can do to provide that kind of education which will develop emotional as well as intellectual maturity, that will equip us to deal with the complications and dislocations of the present crisis?

Let us assume that we are all agreed that our primary job in education is to develop a basic understanding and appreciation for what we call the democratic way of life: for food, for shelter, for clothing, to be sure; for honesty, for courage, for willingness to face problems and do our level best to solve them; for recognition of our responsibility to promote community co-operation and morality that will build a society of peace, understanding and freedom; for, in short, understanding of our own inadequacies and an acceptance of our obligation to learn.

These are at least some of the things that we understand as our way of life. How then can we who are charged with providing leadership in education meet our obligations to our youth?

To me there are five basic axiomatic principles which we must accept and which we must follow. They are not new, they are old, but we need to keep reminding ourselves of them: (1) to provide equal opportunity for all youth, (2) to educate all youth with essential common understandings and skills, (3) to consider each person as an individual as well as a member of a group, (4) to provide for the full development of special aptitudes and skills, and (5) to create real opportunities for our young men and women or help them create such opportunities for themselves.

Let us take these in order.

EQUAL OPPORTUNITY

Equal opportunity means exactly what it says, and no less. We must work undeviatingly for the day when every educational facility of our country — and, ultimately, of the world — will be open on an equal basis to anyone, regardless of color, race, creed, geographic origin, economic status, or any other factors save ability, honesty, purposefulness, and potential contribution.

The most cursory statistical review reveals how completely we fail in this respect. Operating expenses per student in public elementary and secondary schools in 1950-51, according to recent reports vary from \$296 in the state

with the highest expenditure to \$70 in the state with the lowest. Fifteen states are spending less than \$160 per student, most of the fifteen being well below that figure. These differences do not reveal equal educational opportunities. Clearly we are not now meeting our responsibility to youth in this respect.

Equal opportunity implies my second point as a necessary correlative, namely, that education must concern itself, as one of its fundamentals, with needs, values, and skills that all of us have in common. If we are to understand each other better, thorough teaching is essential in the communication skills such as reading and writing. With the growing emphasis on radio and television, we need to think, as we never have before, of developing more discriminating listening and seeing. And as we look ahead to another post-war era, we must provide now for students' introduction to the values that make leisure time a time of purpose, rather than a time for nervous searching for a "movie we can stand," or a gambling "joint" or jittery analysis of the third at Hialeah.

In our complex society, I consider essential a conscious cultivation of the abilities both to pass judgment wisely at the polls, and to live and work with a family, communities, and other groups, in democratic action.

CONCEPT OF FREEDOM

Every adolescent in our country must come to *understand* — and I choose my word with care — the broadest significance of our American heritage, for with that understanding will come a loyalty to the ideals that are embedded in that heritage. There is no excuse for us, or for others, not to know, for instance, why we fight. The Frenchman in *South Pacific* who says "I know what you are against, but what are you for?" says it partly because, in the past ten years, it has become one of the things "to say." But he has his point. Every American should know, just as he knows his own name, that, in the last analysis, our country stands always, and fundamentally, for one great concept, the goal of freedom.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

In the third place, our educational pattern must consider each person as an individual with special abilities, aptitudes, feelings and environment. Each individual is a total human being reacting to all elements in his environment and can be understood only in those terms. This has been emphasized enough in recent years so that I need say only that this means an elaboration of our diagnostic, counseling, and guidance techniques, and more thorough training of the administrators of them. This is essential, if our manpower is to be used most effectively, regardless of whether we are at peace or at war.

DEVELOPMENT OF SKILLS

The need to develop an individual's special skills and abilities which I mentioned fourth, grows logically and psychologically out of the second and third requirements. Our young people acknowledge the need for special training for civilian careers. They think, however, that during times of war

their particular usefulness and special abilities will be wholly lost. Although there may have been a tendency in the past for the armed services to assign men regardless of capacities and training, we hope that in the current struggle the services will have caught up with modern means of appraising men so that they can and will make their maximum contributions.

Ours is the age of specialization. The skills we learn to live by, we *can* use to fight by—and we *must*, in view of the proportion of future military threats. We learned during World War II that 75 per cent of the skills required by the armed forces were essentially the same as those required for civilian life. Recruiting officers have long used the phrase: "Join the Army and learn a trade." In our current concerns, we might well reverse this and say, "Learn skills and you will be ready for the armed services, if they need you, as well as for civilian life." In other words, we need to distinguish between training for military service and military service as such; they are distinctly different.

GENUINE OPPORTUNITIES

Finally, government, industry, and formal education must unite to provide genuine opportunities and outlets for the creative, productive energies of all—old and young alike. These opportunities must be real, concrete, down to earth, not just hypothetical worlds to conquer. Such opportunities are the life blood of a democracy. As Sumner Slichter has pointed out, we normally have over six million centers of initiative in this country in industry and in agriculture. If we diminish these opportunities through the centralization that inevitably comes through war, we will lose our democracy and, in turn, our freedom. In other words, we lose the very values for which we are fighting today.

In a sense, we have a responsibility for providing more opportunities to people throughout the world. As we do so, the opportunities for our youth become greater. Our problems on a world wide basis may be similar to the problems of 1933, but not to be solved by an NRA or by dispirited boys or old men. Economically we cannot confine our thinking to U. S. A. Our economy is affected by and is dependent upon the economies of nations everywhere. We need to explore the potential of ECA, of southeast Asia, of South America, of our own West Coast, South and Southwest, and of Alaska. These are frontiers of creative opportunities. In approaching them, we need to be inventive and use every ounce of forethought that we can muster.

CONSTRUCTIVE ACTION

All this we can, and I believe, will do. And I believe further that the days of constructive action may not be far away. We may be nearer than we generally assume to a prolonged era of peace and unprecedented commercial, cultural, and scientific development. Of course, we have no alternative now than to prepare for all-out war. However, if Russia does not fight, then we are on the threshold of a new era. If she does, and loses, as I am sure she will, we will be upon the threshold of it then. For, after all, Russia and we are, in a

very real sense, the finalists. And do not distort my phrase. We shall, of course, not commandeer the world, nor any part of it, nor shall we, "in winning, lose," in the language of those fearful few who actually envision, as they did in 1940, an American dictatorship.

What I mean is that as a strong nation primarily concerned with freeing people everywhere we may be able to establish a world order of peace, freedom and justice which will work, through the logic, — not the mere hope as in 1918 and 1945 — of the simple absence of an effective major challenger.

We have an opportunity given to few peoples in history. It is the greatest of opportunities for youth too. Basically and in substance it is our responsibility to help those, who will inherit our land, to make not only the most of it but to extend to people everywhere the kind of freedom we cherish. We will not fulfill our responsibility for youth in a changing world, if we do less.

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Second General Session

Saturday, February 10, 2:30 P. M., Century Room

JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL SECTION

PRESIDING: *Harold B. Brooks*, Principal, Benjamin Franklin Junior High School, Long Beach, California; Second Vice President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Trends in Junior-High-School Education

FORREST E. LONG

WHEN I received this assignment I realized what a mistake it is for me to try to tell you junior-high-school principals, collectively, what the trends are in your own schools. There is scarcely a person here who is not able to tell of significant variations in some school or in some areas, about which I have no information whatever. So, in the very beginning, I want to make no claim to complete knowledge about a subject as complex as the American junior high school.

When I began to prepare this report I had to refer to notes of conferences I had with some of you and with some of your teachers and with other faculties. I had to write to many of you and to others asking for reports on what is happening. What a bonanza it would have been could I have corralled all of you in a room for an hour or so — then I could have gotten the facts right from headquarters. If our Executive Committee approves, I am willing to volunteer to lead just such a discussion group at a general session like this next year.

I shall not try to tell you what a counting of practices shows. However, even the counting people can be wrong as Mr. Gallop and Mr. Roper well know. Instead of a statistical report, I am going to admit quite frankly that what I have to say is my own opinion. I do hope that my opinion is founded on something more objective than mere whim. Personally, I resisted being convinced on some of the points I am going to present. I doubt that any of you will go along with me completely.

SPOKESMEN FOR EDUCATION

In the field of politics, the leading spokesmen are periodically retired to private life or, they are given a note of confidence by their constituents in the form of a re-election. In education, there is no such affirmation of faith on the part of the electorate. Sometime I think it might be a good thing if the people could, from time to time, decide just who is best qualified to speak for them. Certainly the newspapers editors are not qualified to speak for the voters in the field of politics — witness the independence of the voters at recent elections. Is there any reason to believe that the newspapers editors, or even the editors of the professional press are any better qualified to speak with the voice of the

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people in the field of education? This is another way of reminding you that I am mindful of the fact that the people have not delegated me as their spokesman.

I merely want to tell you some of the things I heard and saw and read. I have been in some schools and in some classrooms, have talked to some teachers and to some patrons, and to some janitors, and to some members of boards of education, to some members of real estate boards, and to some members of chambers of commerce, and to some union members, and to some non-union workers, and to some high-school and junior-high-school pupils. I have talked with principals and I have had letters and reports from every state. Many of you here this morning have written to me and have sent reports to me. If I don't properly interpret what you told me, please put it down to the fact that I received volumes of material and in the brief time allotted to me I can not possibly cover it all.

I shall not try to convince you of anything. In fact I should like to be proved wrong in quite a number of the conclusions I have drawn. Some of the things I have seen and know to be true, I do not applaud.

But even though I do not applaud some of the things that are happening, neither am I going to hurl new and barbed invectives at the American school system. I have not thought up any new names to call the teachers and administrators and supervisors who make up the staffs of the junior high schools of the nation. Quite frankly, I think many of the so-called friends of education have demonstrated their especial affection for public education in very peculiar ways — they have hit the headlines with their denunciations — denunciations oftentimes quite as unfounded as those of the avowed enemies of the schools.

It has seemed to me that much of the material published about education in recent months has been of a derogatory nature. As this adverse criticism grew in volume, I became alarmed because I believed that schools just could not be as bad as was claimed. Do you remember the headline in *Life* magazine? It read: "Roper survey finds both complacency and dissatisfaction." The implication of the heading, if not the real intent, is that one couldn't be justly proud of what the schools have done and at the same time desirous of improving them. No, apparently *Life* editors think people are either complacent or dissatisfied. By the way, complacency, according to Webster, implies serene self-satisfaction — it is satisfied ignorance. While I do not feel complacent about the junior high schools, still I am not entirely dissatisfied with them either.

There is one thing I have noticed, however, about many of the people who are most vigorous in their attacks on the schools — those who are the higher strategy planners, the five and six-star generals of education. I have noticed that in many cases they are people who are a good many steps removed from the classroom. It is possible that the farther one gets away from the school classroom the easier it is for him to pontificate on what the school needs. Many of the most quoted critics probably have not been in an elementary or secondary-school classroom in twenty years. Frankly, I wonder whether they are in a good position to know what is going on.

I noticed further that these higher or upper strategy generals seldom quote facts or rely upon an experimental evidence. How would scientists in other disciplines act under similar circumstances? Seldom would we see a doctor publicly announce a new cure without having previously tried out his suggested new remedy. But such details seem not to bother some of our most vocal critics. I can sympathize with Philip Wylie¹ when he wrote:

To listen these days to educators is a little revolting; it is like listening to a funeral oration from the lips of the assassin or, perhaps more accurately, to a plan for a next war offered by the men whose stupidities, arranges, irresponsibilities, and lack of zeal lost the last one.

The labor people speak of action by the "rank and file." We in education have a need for some device whereby the rank and file in education can be heard. Such a voice would be much more impressive than the ones we so often do hear.

PUBLIC SUPPORT FOR EDUCATION

I promised earlier not to throw statistics at you. But let me refresh your memory on a few points:

1. Even though the appropriations for education in America have increased from two and seven-tenths billions in 1940 to four and two-tenths billions in 1948, the actual percentage of governmental income devoted to education has dropped from fifteen per cent in 1940 to seven per cent in 1948. And if we reduce the 4.2 billions spent for education in 1948 — if we reduce this to the 1940 dollar level, we find that only about 2.436 billions of 1940-value dollars were spent in 1948 in comparison to 2.7 billions of 1940 dollars spent in 1940. Actually, education has not held its own.²
2. I should like to remind you that the average salary paid to teachers in 1949-50 was \$2,980. But when this salary is reduced to the 1940 dollar level, we find that it amounts to less than \$1750. Most assuredly teachers' salaries have not skyrocketed.
3. In 1949 there were still 10.6 per cent of the teachers of the nation who were serving under emergency licenses.
4. Almost one half (48.2% or 68,080) of the 141,380 schools in America were one-room schools.
5. Of the 24,649 secondary schools in America, 8,656, or over one third, were schools with fewer than 100 pupils each. Almost three fifths (15,938) were schools of fewer than 300 pupils.

In brief, many of the schools are small, salaries are low, equipment is scarce, and a very large percentage of the teachers are not even teaching on standard certificates. Financial support for education has not kept pace with the ever-rising cost of living. To put it bluntly, we have not given our public schools adequate financial support. And for our purposes this morning, we must remember that what happens in these weaker, understaffed, small schools con-

¹ *Saturday Review of Literature*, October 7, 1950.

² Above figures were taken from a report by U. S. Chamber of Commerce. National Education Association figures show a slight increase in expenditures in 1948 over 1940, when the dollar is equalized.

stitutes a part of education in this country just as much as the programs where reorganization is going on constantly and where sufficient staff is provided to make possible many of the better adaptations of education to modern needs of youth. Otherwise stated, I am reminding you not to expect too much of many of these schools.

What is more natural than that the schools should reflect the current unrest of our population at large? There is so much insecurity in the modern world that we are pleased with practically nothing at all. Well may *Life* editors complain that few people are pleased with the modern school. But there are myriads of things with which people are not pleased. If *Life* editors were to ask the same sampling of people about other phases of American living what would the answers be? For example, ask them about the doctors, the churches, the movies, the radio, the police, the traffic engineers, the Congress, the generals who are commanding our armies in Korea, the railroads, and see what they say. Certainly we are dissatisfied with education; we are dissatisfied with a lot of other phases of life too. Maybe we are just dissatisfied.

The question might well be asked: "Why don't we just follow the advice of our public and do what they want us to do." The difficulty here is very real. The facts are that our critics just don't agree among themselves. They are a million miles apart in their thinking about what the schools *should* do. What a dilemma we would face if the junior high schools, for example, were to try to follow the advice of all of our critics. These schools most assuredly would move off in many — yes all — directions at one and the same time. The simple truth is that neither we who are in education, nor the lay agitators are in much agreement as to what education really should do. It is a plain and simple fact that education can not please everybody. I believe that many of the differences are more irreconcilable than most school people think. An extreme example of this is to be found in one large American city.

I have in my files a letter from a senior high-school principal in this city. He reports that the senior high-school principals openly condemn the junior high schools and that almost to a man they would like to see junior high schools abandoned. I don't know how general this feeling against the junior high school is — I know that it was very general a few years ago. If I were to hazard a guess, I would say that this opposition to the junior high schools is subsiding.

STAFF AND ADMINISTRATION DICHOTOMY

It seems to me that the unrest manifested among workers in other fields is reflected in our schools. Many teachers today give the impression that they are dissatisfied with their working conditions. (Can you wonder at this when, for example, a driver of a pastry truck in New York City may be paid as much as \$5,200.00 per year?) Personally, I see no easy solution to this problem so long as there is a personnel shortage in the country. Higher salaries will help. However, this very unrest calls for more and better personnel administration

than has been customary in our schools in the past. For various reasons this unrest seems more apparent in the junior high schools than at other levels.

It is not unusual to hear perplexed teachers ask: "Do you think this is what the principal (or superintendent) wants?" Often we have heard them say, in effect: "We'd be glad to co-operate if we just know what it is he wants us to do." As you well know, every administrator is mindful of this feeling on the part of teachers and other school personnel. Effort expended by administrators and supervisors on bolstering morale will pay big dividends.

A NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

It is a source of much wonderment to me how the junior high schools of one section of the country so much resemble the junior high schools of another section. Just why the various states have not gone off on their own quests of what is good and right is a mystery. This is especially true when there is so much diversity of recommendations as to what *should* be done. I can understand how a more objective science, say of medicine, might well standardize its practices the world over. Presumably, a good cure is a good cure anywhere.

Unless one wants to quibble, it is safe to say that the junior high schools of the nation are interested in essentially the same problems. In many ways the junior high schools are very much alike. In fact, they are so similar that in retrospect it is not easy to distinguish one from the others.

This similarity of schools extends even to the teaching. Neither the good nor the poor teachers seem to be concentrated in any one school or area. It is not difficult to find good teachers wherever we go, and the poor ones are distributed around too. Teachers are tackling comparable problems in much the same way the nation over.

It would not be difficult to draw a composite picture of the average junior-high-school teacher and that teacher could be located in almost any school. But please do not conclude that this average teacher is an easily understood personality. Quite the contrary is true. For example, he isn't saying too quickly what he thinks. Most assuredly he isn't rushing to absorb the current fashionable innovation emanating from some college or university or even from the superintendent's or principal's office. I have a great respect for this average junior-high-school teacher. He is serious; he has a lot of local and, in the long run, national influence. All of us can learn from him. Incidentally, he turns out to be the best and actually almost the only effective public relations medium in education. That average junior-high-school teacher has a genuine interest in the welfare of his pupils. I have asked teachers about the major problems of youth that give them concern and a rough classification of these problems might be as follows:

1. The problems associated with growing up.
2. Personal relationships, largely relationships with their friends.
3. Problems associated with the work of the school.

This average teacher realizes that many pupil problems are far beyond the reach or scope of the school — such problems as are aggravated by undesirable personal home conditions, by illness, by a sub-standard economic condition of the family, *etc.* But this average teacher does not despair easily, even on the problems beyond the reasonable scope of the school. He is everlastingly searching for some solution, for some way to be of greater service to youth. This feeling of inadequacy on the part of teachers accounts for the present emphasis on guidance.

GUIDANCE

The entire world is in a state of unrest. Who is there among us who is not looking for a haven, a security of emotions, a security of substance, a security even of person? As we meet here this morning there are those who are alert to the hazards of possible enemy attack. What is more natural than that our schools reflect this feeling of unrest? As someone said recently: "A few years ago anyone beset with fears was considered crazy. Now if one isn't beset with fears he is considered crazy."

Almost all schools are giving special attention to their guidance techniques. Many have written to me that they are extending their testing program and that more free or nonteaching time is being given to home-room and class teachers — more time for personal counseling. The idea of developing better student-teacher rapport seems to be prominent in the planning of many schools. Some principals and teachers are saying that they hope for better results in guidance as they reduce their emphasis on the "formalities" of guidance.

READING

I am impressed at the extent to which junior high schools are stressing reading. All of the critics of the schools can shout to the housetops that the schools are not teaching the 3 R's. But in rebuttal I shall testify that the junior high schools may not be inflaming the youth of the land with a love for the printed page, but if these schools are not getting satisfactory results, it is not because they don't try. There is an extensive and almost universal interest in materials that are interesting to pupils of junior high-school age yet simple enough to be read by slow readers. Teachers want materials that will compete with the radio, or the television, or the movies, or the comic books. Many librarians are alerted to the needs of these slow readers.

CURRICULUM RESEARCH

Almost no one brags about the curriculum of his school just as almost no one boasts about the marking system that his school uses. Is this due to our innate modesty? I doubt it. Most junior high-school people say that their curriculum should or could be much better; that they plan to reorganize it. Few are able even to point to any other school that has done a really good job of curriculum planning and reorganization. And yet the desire to do some reorganizing on their own is there.

Just in passing, may I suggest that the curriculum helpers, both the outside directors of curriculum study and the so-called resource people who are

on the day-to-day job, may I suggest that they be employed only at the request of the regular teachers who will have to work with them. Time spent in bringing teachers around to a "reorganization" point of view is likely to be time well spent. If teachers are favorable to the plan then the specialists, when they do arrive, can go right to work.

CORE CURRICULUM

It is most difficult for me to judge just how successful have been the attempts at reorganization of the curriculum pattern in junior high schools. The core curriculum seems to have much to commend it, especially in theory. I am not too sure about the effectiveness of the plan as it is worked out in various schools. The offering seems to be a combination of English and social studies largely for seventh-grade pupils. I don't know how general it is, but I do know that some schools merely offer two periods, one of English and one of social studies, both taught by the same teacher. With so much general approval expressed at our conventions and in our literature, it is difficult to understand why the core curriculum idea has not extended more generally to the upper years. Sometimes I seem to sense that the motivation behind the core curriculum, on the local level, is more the idea of prolonging the elementary school practice of having pupils with one teacher for a longer period of time, a postponement of departmentalization, than of any overwhelming desire to fuse subject matter into a unified core offering.

I have found considerable concern over the conflict between the earlier-recognized exploratory function of the junior high school, a function that called for short-unit tryout courses and participation in many activities, and the present pressure for a core curriculum calling for a longer period of concentration on certain general problems. The conflict is between the apparent demand for differentiation on the one hand and for integration on the other. Without a doubt the core curriculum movement is on the march and many of those who are close to existing programs are convinced that any real or assumed conflict between the two objectives can be reconciled easily.

GROUP DYNAMICS

As all of us know, much skillful planning has gone into recent practices in group processes. The alacrity with which schools have attempted to use these techniques attests to the need for some devices to gain larger pupil participation of the proper kind. To be sure good teachers have utilized the best in group participation for ages. This movement is getting much attention in the junior high schools of the country. However we have seen the process misused a good many times, too. Without a doubt much actual harm can come from permitting junior high-school pupils to believe that they can, by even unanimous agreement among themselves, resolve problems affecting others. Pupil participation alone can not be a criterion of successful teaching.

MARKING AND REPORTING PROGRESS

As I indicated above, most schools are not very well pleased with their marking systems. We find them swinging back and forth, some going one

way and some another, everlastingly seeking some sort of plan that will more adequately serve the purpose of letting pupils and parents know how well we think our pupils are doing. Every system I know of has its weaknesses. Since my wife is reporting on this topic at another section of this convention, I shall not dwell on the subject here.

INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS

I am considerably surprised at the extent of participation by junior high schools in interscholastic sports, especially football and basketball. The desirability of participation is being debated in many schools—some schools where they now have participation are thinking they should discontinue it and in many schools where they do not have participation, there is considerable pressure in favor of the organization of interscholastic teams.

PROFESSIONAL PUBLICATIONS

Being an editor in my spare time, I am especially interested in how accurately our journals reflect the actual school situations. I am more convinced than ever, that our journals tend to publish the unusual and that they do not reflect day-to-day school procedure. There are some grounds for concluding that even the "counting studies" often reflect only what the respondents to the inquiries "think" their schools are doing or even what they "hope" their schools are doing, or *will do*. At any rate I think I am safe to report that I have found that schools are not always doing what *our* journal has reported them to be doing. This probably is not too surprising when we take a look at the daily newspapers and then note how far they are from the day-to-day thinking of our people. Contrast recent election results with the newspaper predictions.

OTHER IMPORTANT ITEMS

If time permitted, I should like to present some developments in a number of additional areas. Especially noteworthy work is being done in:

1. Articulation
2. Mimeographed school papers
3. Special preparation for junior high-school service
4. Art and music in the junior high school
5. Six-year high schools
6. Radio and television education
7. Noon-hour recreation
8. Maintenance of interest in clubs
9. Evaluation

SHIBBOLETHS

In past years many schools have relied upon pat answers to quiet opposition to our procedures. For example, there were measurements that would solve all or most of our problems, and there were problem-project teaching, progressive education, vocational education, and even the junior high school itself. The core-curriculum pattern gave great promise and the movement toward a life-adjustment program and the teaching for democratic living all made their contributions. But what can we say today when we are asked to defend the

junior high school and with just a word or two? What is our present-day shibboleth?

I get the idea that teachers and principals are less likely to seek pat answers — shibboleths — today. I get the idea that the junior high schools are more mature than they have appeared to be in the past. They are growing up. Rather than a glib answer to a question, junior high-school people are more likely to ask the questioner to sit down and think through the problem with them. This I like.

CONCLUSION

Considering the support that our society has given to the junior high school, I believe that it has made a superior contribution to our way of life. With more generous support, it will give account of itself in the years ahead.

The Function of Today's Junior High Schools

ELIAS LIEBERMAN

THE junior high school had its origins in the unmet needs of early adolescents. Educational progress usually takes its cue for charts of the future by studying and attempting to remedy the ascertainable weaknesses of the present. When parents and teachers became convinced that a transitional level was needed to bridge the gap between the elementary school and the high school, the junior high school evolved as a natural development.

Early adolescent psychology provided the basis for future pedagogic planning. Picture a girl, any girl, between the ages of twelve and fifteen, the typical junior high-school student. She is groping her way out of childhood into young womanhood, a butterfly not yet free of its cocoon, wings beginning to flutter but natural restraints impeding. In this state of being, no longer just a child nor yet a young woman, feeling the need for parental security and yet longing for adventure, she is more often than not a puzzle to her parents and to her teachers. She blows hot and cold in sudden gusts; she is moody, exalted, glad, angry, sinner and saint in quick succession. Her brother is equally unpredictable although his physiological development obeys a slower tempo. No longer a little boy, he is not yet a man. His urges and his aspirations clash with one another and with his environment. His code of behavior is sometimes as cracked as his voice. At this stage he will, if inspired, enthusiastically follow the noblest ideals or, alas, under evil influences, he will join the predatory groups of young hoodlums who constitute one of the serious threats of our day. He becomes a juvenile delinquent whether he has a background of rural surroundings or of the flotsam and jetsam of a great city. His sister's fate is equally determined, as is her brother's, by the effectiveness of the total educational pattern represented by the home, the church, the local environment and, especially, the school.

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These are the students of today's junior high school. We must understand them and provide for them when they approach the threshold of the secondary school, the junior high school. What is it then that the junior high school can offer them that is not made possible in equal measure through the elementary school of eight grades?

The answer lies in the fact that the junior high school, including as it does the seventh, eighth, and ninth years only, has enough pupils of similar ages to assure flexibility of programming adequate for their needs and for the task we must undertake. Since the junior high school meets this condition, a more developmental schooling for the early adolescent can be offered, rich in opportunities for the full use of a student's latent powers. The elementary school with comparatively few pupils in the seventh and eighth years cannot plan for the vital experiential curriculum required by an optimum scope for exploratory activities and guidance. In *Education for All American Youth*, sponsored by the Educational Policies Commission, a publication with which you are all familiar, the bare blue print for the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades for the purpose of meeting common and divergent needs of pupils as well indicated as follows:

Grades VII, VIII, and IX might be called the period of the common secondary school. The educational needs of boys and girls from twelve to fifteen are, on the whole, common to all. Hence the curriculum for these three years is, in its broad outlines, the same for all pupils, though with ample opportunity within each class for the teacher to take account of differences among individuals.

During these early years of adolescence, the pupil continues to grow in knowledge and understanding of the world in which he lives; in ability to think clearly and to express himself intelligently in speech and writing; in his mastery of scientific facts and mathematical processes; and in his capacity to assume responsibilities to direct his own affairs, and to work and live co-operatively with other people. At the same time he is introduced to a wide range of experiences in intellectual, occupational, and recreational fields, so that he may have a broad base for the choices of his interests which later he will follow more intensively. He is helped to understand the processes of physiological and emotional maturing, characteristic of these years, and to develop habits of healthful living. He gains greater insight into his own abilities and potentialities.

Before I proceed to touch on today's junior high school, how it performs the educational tasks assigned to it, and how it meets the general and specific objectives growing out of its responsibilities; I wish to make reference, if only in passing, to a concept that is today discarded; namely, that the junior high school must be for a considerable number of its students a terminal school. Because of the compulsory education law and the extension of the period of obligatory school years to eighteen in many states, the junior high school, unlike its counterpart of yesterday, does not attempt to make definitive judgments in regard to the future careers of boys and girls. Only a short decade ago the City of New York discontinued its three separate tracks—the academic, the commercial, and the industrial arts courses. Many educators today believe that training in occupational skills should be deferred as late as

possible at least to the eleventh year for most students. In communities subscribing to this basic principle schools are often divided on a 6-4-4 basis with the junior high school encompassing the tenth year along with the ninth. The eleventh to the fourteenth years through junior college are left for the cultivation of divergent intellectual and occupational interests.

Since, therefore, the junior high school is essentially a transitional school, its general and specific objectives must take cognizance of its most important aim, an aim that the philosopher Socrates thousands of years ago phrased in these few words, "Man, know thyself." The early adolescent, even as he is rapidly growing, must take stock of himself and with the aid of teachers find out all he can about his own special abilities and weaknesses. He learns to cultivate the former and to remedy the latter. By the time he is ready to enter the tenth year he has at least glimpsed the shape of things to come in his own life through an over-all program stressing for him exploration, guidance, and social living. The many opportunities offered the pupil for self-understanding and self-help are intended to achieve the school's dominant purpose, to educate him and his classmates for active and intelligent participation in American democratic society. It follows, therefore, that the junior high school of today must evaluate its success not only in terms of what it sets out to teach its pupils but also in terms of what boys and girls *do* as a result of the school's work with them. Only by giving pupils real responsibility in the carrying out of meaningful democratic activities can the school be certain that it has done all it should do to develop good citizenship attitudes and practices in all its students. There are other general objectives, overlapping necessarily with this one, but all have the same underlying idea of stimulating self-revelation and of building upon it. Thus, character development is promoted through the exploration of a student's best abilities—intellectual, physical, and mechanical—and his careful guidance through the maze of difficult years comprising pre-adolescence and adolescence. A principal of a junior high school must not only himself practice what he preaches but he also must lean heavily on members of his faculty for the demonstration of good examples. Adolescents are lightning quick to detect the false note of pretense and the temporary surface glitter of sham in their mentors. In dealing with young people we must remember what a wise Frenchman once said to a man who tried to ingratiate himself into favor, "What you are speaks so loud, I cannot hear what you say."

May I make reference at this point to a project in character training undertaken by junior high school boys and girls in New York City. At the time it attracted national attention. I am referring to it now only as an example of what children can do when they set their minds and wills to the achievement of a worthwhile task. In that sense the formulation of the Junior High School Code of Behavior is interesting to educators. Here is a set of standards of conduct drawn up not only *for* school boys and girls but also *by* school boys and girls. It all started in my office when I called together seventeen

boys and girls representing various schools and put the problem to them in the form of a question. I asked, "Are you satisfied with the behavior of boys and girls in motion picture houses, in school, on the streets, in buses, subway trains, and in other places where you meet children of your own age?" To my question I received an answer in the negative. "Would you like to do something about it?" I asked. Since they all seemed interested, I challenged them to draw up in very simple language a guide for their own behavior and for the behavior of other boys and girls like them. This guide, I warned, would have to be very good because I should send it before adoption to all junior high schools in the city for revision and criticism. As faculty adviser for this project I appointed a teacher of sound judgment who remained discreetly in the background throughout spirited debates that raged about the topics discussed by the pupils. At last in five brief articles these young people put down their own concept of proper behavior. Here it is:

1. I will never knowingly, by word or deed, injure anyone's person, feelings, or property, in any manner.
2. I will always respect the religious beliefs of others as I will respect my own.
3. I will show courtesy to other people at all times, particularly to my elders.
4. I will abide by the laws and regulations of my school and community.
5. I will be honest with myself and others, and I will practice cleanliness of mind and body at all times.

This was adopted by an overwhelming vote of over 100,000 students, printed in the school papers, proclaimed in the assemblies, and announced to parents in innumerable homes. The code drawn up, as you see, "accentuated the positive" and avoided don'ts.

All this happened about seven years ago. To this day, however, the code is kept alive through ethical discussions based upon it, through dramatizations of its basic principles, through posters, and other means of projecting it favorably to teen-agers. Only a few months ago The Women's International Exposition held in New York City allocated an entire booth to a display of the code and its illustrative material. Subsequently, a Manual of Behavior was evolved, also by student committees. The Manual was designed to amplify the meaning of each article of the code as it applies to actual situations which junior high school boys or girls meet with in every-day living. The Manual, called "How Do You Measure Up" is now used for guidance purposes in all our junior high schools. Through this project boys and girls of junior high school age again showed convincingly that they can handle serious matters in a serious way and even make their own contributions to the thinking of our generation on manners and morals.

Unlike the old notion that students of the highest I.Q.'s. must be concerned with academic learning and those of lower levels with either commercial pursuits or with manual training, the junior high school of today insists that all of its students for developmental and exploratory purposes, try their skill in industrial arts shops. These shops are provided in rich variety. Boys are scheduled for tryouts in woodworking, metal working, the various common

applications of electricity, arts and crafts, ceramics, and the graphic arts. The major shop activities for girls are concerned principally with home economics, which includes sewing and dressmaking as well as the entire area of foods and their preparation. To these are added millinery and art weaving. The division line between boys' and girls' shop activities, however, is not hard and fast. A boy is given the opportunity to learn sewing for daily needs and the art of cooking. Girls, if they wish it and if they show a talent for it, are permitted to enroll in the woodworking and other industrial arts shops.

The case for shop experience for all students is well stated in the following passage from a report submitted to the Board of Education of the City of New York by a committee that made a thorough survey of junior high schools to determine criteria for future planning:

The Committee believes that all of the pupils in the junior high schools, regardless of their intentions for the future, should have during the three years, ample experience in a variety of shops. The purpose of the shop program should be to discover individual interests and aptitudes. Shop experience will also serve as a means of guidance. Shop activities should not be planned as definitely vocational or prevocational. For the pupil who will enter the vocational high school, his shop experience will serve as a general preparation for the specific vocational course that he will later pursue. Experiences in the field of industrial arts are of general educational value to all pupils. Shop work has special significance also from the aspect of mental hygiene. It is extremely important that children be given an opportunity to express themselves by doing things.

The last sentence highlights an important aspect of the junior high school of today, a place where pupils "express themselves by doing things." Energy of children is constantly being sublimated into self-study.

Let us for a moment focus our attention on health problems since health is basic to all of us. In a grade in junior high school one of the pupils, John, happens to be rather short and thin. His classmate, William, on the other hand is tall and rugged. Obviously individual differences are not only mental and emotional but also physical. Provision, however, must be made for these differences in order that the physical fitness of each child may be promoted with due regard for the severe strains under which the body is put during the period of adolescence.

The Junior High School must, through its health education program, also look ahead to the future in addition to helping a youngster establish himself, gain a sense of security and a feeling of belonging. Most important of all the school should provide a basis for his permanent recreative interests as he grows older. It is important that he learn not only to maintain his health at a reasonably high standard but to make good use of his leisure time.

The acceptable modern definition, therefore, of the curriculum is "the sum total of all guided experience." A visit to a museum, to a public concert, to a public library, to the water front, to a factory, to a store, can be made by the modern teacher a significant educational event. The student experiences outwardly a broadening of his horizons and inwardly a better understanding of his own interests, aptitudes, and limitations. Often the experiences pro-

vided through the school help boys and girls to express their emotions and ideas. It is a task of teachers to help pupils find media of expression that will be satisfying to them and to attain control of the tools and materials involved. The variety of children to be served in any school is necessarily very great. They differ in talents and abilities, also in physical, intellectual, social, and emotional makeup. They are drawn from every type of socio-economic background and they develop toward young manhood and young womanhood at varying rates.

The curriculum for them must be flexible, adapted to individual capacities and needs. Some children for reasons connected with earlier maturity or a richer home environment, or more decided abilities enter junior high school with well developed tastes and talents. The great majority, however, need a wide range of experiences. These the school provides in dramatics, choral speaking, singing, painting, athletics, journalism, projects in government, projects in neighborhood welfare, scientific inquiries, industrial arts projects, and other means devised by a resourceful teacher.

The term "creative expression" is used broadly in its application to work done by junior high school students. Not only in the writing of a poem or of a biography or a short story; not only in the painting of a picture which records a vital experience; not only in the dramatic interpretation of the great masters through drama or through choric speech, does a boy or girl evidence a bent for creative expression. He may also show it in a shop through his resourcefulness in fashioning something that will be useful in his home. He may be a leader of student opinion and evidence unusual ability in crystalizing the thinking of his classmates toward worthwhile school undertakings; he may the strategist on his basketball team whose well-conceived plans win games. We whose privilege it is to guide children through their early adolescent years must believe that every child has something to give to others. It is our task definitely to help him find for himself what is to be his special contribution.

About ten years ago our Junior High School Division, under the editorship of Angelo Patri, a name well-known to you all, produced a publication called "Moments of Enchantment," which won public attention and favor. And yet it included only what boys and girls in your schools and in ours actually create as an outlet for their different talents—poems, stories, biographies, playlets, musical compositions, exhibits of sculpture, tapestry, batik, photography, ceramics, varied facets in a brilliant composite jewel of diversified abilities. The modern junior high school attempts to ascertain what boys and girls can do and then helps them realize their power.

The junior high school of today does not necessarily respect subject areas as they were found in the traditional academic high school program. The junior high school pupil, because of his youth, needs to have fewer teachers who must get to know him and guide him properly. The Junior High School Division Curriculum Planning Committee for the City of New York recently

issued a brief statement which, because it represents honest wrestling with a current problem, is worthy of being quoted here as an example of teacher thinking.

"Many junior high schools are using unification of subject areas as a step toward the core curriculum. Several subjects are taught to the same class by one teacher who unifies these subjects through the use of units of work which cut across the several subject matter fields.

In these combinations there are several factors which must be very carefully considered by the curriculum co-ordinator. These are: the degree of inter-relationship among the subjects chosen for unification; the qualifications and talents of the teachers; the resources of the school; the necessity for teacher training or retraining.

Because of these factors and the difficulty of planning and carrying out the program in schools in our large city the committee is not ready to recommend any one plan for city wide use. The committee recognizes the importance of emphasis on the needs and growth of the pre-adolescent pupil as well as the importance of the acquisition of knowledge and skills. It recommends that schools be encouraged to experiment with programs which tend to eliminate subject matter barriers and unify instruction. It recommends, too, that experimentation be continued with programs which will give due consideration to the relatedness of learnings in the various subjects. In this way the integrative learning processes within the pupil will be furthered. The committee advocates a curriculum program which, while recognizing the special values of certain vital subject areas, provides *integrated* learnings through emphasis on the many desirable inter-relationships.

These inter-relationships can be effected through a variety of administrative and teaching procedures. Thus, the same teacher may teach several subjects to one class. Teachers of several subjects may work together on a problem to which each contributes from his particular field.

In order that inter-relationships may be significant to each pupil and that the selection of experiences and content may have validity in meeting pupil growth needs, it is desirable that there be continuous readjustment of courses of study to meet local situations. It is desirable, too, that common problems as well as subject areas be defined for the several teachers working with the same class. Such procedures stress a great variety of inter-relationships. They also help avoid the danger of omitting some of the essential content, concepts, and skills peculiar to each of the subject areas which may be lost if it is assumed that they are the common province of all. The teacher will feel free to experiment by cutting across subject areas.

How do children themselves regard their junior high school experience? To what extent do they themselves realize the developmental opportunities which the junior high school of today offers them? Fortunately the children in one of our schools have told their principal exactly what they think they have gained through their association with their teachers and with their fellow students. The school that these young people attend happens to be by day a laboratory of numerous activities of the kind indicated in this paper. It houses 1,610 boys and girls who regard it as a workshop for all the varied things that they wish to do. In the late afternoon and in the evening the building is used intensively for recreation and informal education of older adolescent youth and adults. The principal of the school takes a great inter-

est not only in her work during the day but in the over-all efforts of the school to furnish the broadest possible service to the community. What follows is a composite reply by one of her classes to the question, "What is the function of a junior high school?" Here is what the children themselves tell us it is:

1. It keeps you mature in many different ways—by using your own mind to make decisions, by becoming sociable, and by learning how to help others. It helps you make up your mind on one of the most important steps in your life—your future job or family life.
2. It handles you in a more grown-up manner.
3. A direct jump from elementary school to high school would be very hard to get accustomed to.
4. It gives you a chance to show what you're good at, like shops and sports.
5. It breaks you into the departmental system that you will get in high school. It allows you such freedoms as bazaars, festivals, and dances; it gives you shops so that you may explore certain fields that you may like to take up after school. It gives you hobbies.
6. Junior high school is like a new adventure.
7. J. H. S. does not push us too quickly into a senior high course, nor take us away too quickly from the elementary school.

In conclusion, it is apparent that the junior high school of today renders a very important educational service to our early adolescents, a service that cannot for students of this age range be rendered equally well in an elementary school. I am reminded of a story told to me by a teacher who recently traveled through the Smoky Mountains. He became very much interested in the problems of children there who had only very meagre opportunities for schooling. He relates that he once met a little boy and after a few preliminaries asked him, "Sonny, what do you think it means to be educated?" The little boy thought for a while and then slowly answered, "If I wuz eddicated, I could read the signs along the way and then I'd know where to go." That is exactly what the junior high school of today through its exploratory opportunities and its guidance enables our boys and girls to do: read the signs along the way of life in order that they may know where to go.

Common-Learnings Program in the Junior-High School

ROSCOE V. CRAMER

EVERY state in the Federal Union has recently guaranteed each child the opportunity of at least twelve years of free education, and the junior high school is the key place to make this twelve years of schooling, uninterrupted and continuous. It is the school organization which can most successfully remove the traditional gap between elementary-secondary schools and also provide more effectively for the children of junior high school age.

The main purpose of this discussion is to relate how West Junior High School, Kansas City, Missouri, was organized *more like an elementary school* and how the adolescent child was made more nearly the *focal point of the curriculum* through a program of common learnings that was introduced *experimentally and democratically*.

Roscoe V. Cramer is Principal of the West Jr. H. S., Kansas City, Missouri.

INTRODUCTION OF COMMON LEARNINGS PROGRAM

In September 1943, two of the four teachers of seventh grade basic subjects and the principal offered to experiment with the common learnings program as proposed by Educational Policy Commission for the Education of All American Youth. They co-operated with Dr. Roscoe V. Shores, the Associate Superintendent in Charge of Instruction, the Curriculum Council, and Mr. Joseph G. Bryan, the Director of Secondary Education of the Kansas City Public Schools in working out a common learnings design that would fit into the regular high school time schedule.

During the first year of experimentation with common learnings, each teacher who elected to teach the new program had three class periods with one group of approximately thirty children. The teacher taught arithmetic as well as English and social studies in the area of common learnings; but she was not granted extra time for guidance, commonly called home room. At the beginning of the second year, the other seventh grade teachers of fundamental subjects, also requested the common learnings organization.

By September 1945, the teachers of the basic subjects in the other grades offered to teach the common learnings program as it had been developed through two years of co-operative planning in the seventh grade. But before the introduction of common learnings program into the eighth and ninth grades, the following changes had to be made in the school time schedule and in the experimental design for common learnings:

1. The open noon period was abandoned and all children were required to eat lunch at the school.
2. The school day was lengthened from six to seven class periods of fifty-five minutes for the purpose of providing one-half of a class period for guidance and the other half of the period for lunch.
3. The design for common learnings was changed from three class periods to two and one-half periods, including one-half period for guidance. Arithmetic was dropped from the experimental common learnings program, thus leaving the basic subjects of English, geography, United States history, and science in the area of common learnings in the seventh and eighth grades and English and Civics in the ninth grade.

Following these changes in the design of common learnings in September 1945, each group of children in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades had two and one-half class periods or $137\frac{1}{2}$ minutes with one teacher. And each teacher of the new program had two classes of approximately sixty pupils for five class periods or 275 minutes per day. Therefore, West Junior High School became more like the elementary school where the pupils had spent six of their beginning years, not including kindergarten, in school, and each boy and girl became more the focal point of the curriculum.

The experimental and gradual introduction of common learnings in West Junior High School also permitted the use of democratic procedures in assigning teachers to teach the new program. At first, the entire staff of the school studied and discussed "Education for All American Youth" by Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the

Report of The National Secondary-School Principals Association. At least three monthly faculty meetings were devoted to these first publications on common learnings. Then after considerable study and discussion, the professional workers voted to accept the following principles of education as guide posts for the introduction of the common learnings program:

1. First and foremost was this statement from the book, *Experiences and Education* by Dr. John Dewey, "*Education in order to accomplish its ends both for individual learnings and for society must be based on experience—which is always the actual life experiences of some individual.*" The longer class period in common learnings provided the teacher and the pupils an opportunity to have more experiences than could occur in one single class period, largely confined to a textbook and maybe a work book. They had sufficient time in class to have many learning experiences from numerous sources within the class room, in the whole school, and throughout the community where the children lived.
2. This statement of Dr. John Coursalt in his *Principles of Education* was an excellent guide in the curriculum adventure of common learnings in West Junior High School; "*When the home, church, and community fail to function adequately in the educational work of children, then it becomes the function of the public school to meet the deficiencies of these institutions in order to prepare every child for social efficiency in a free democratic society.*"

Since the boys and girls of West Junior High School lived in the oldest and largest blighted residential area of the city, the curriculum under common learnings design was more flexible for meeting their deficiencies. It was possible to provide every child proper nourishment and benefits of dental and medical care through the health program of the whole school which many of the homes could not provide. It was also feasible to help youth have more adequate recreation, housing, parks, playground, and social services.

A few years ago as the six common learnings groups in the ninth grade completed their survey of the recreational facilities and proposed in assembly an adequate program of recreation for the high school district, a ninth grade girl who lived in an elementary school district, south of the high school building and across the Terminal Railroad tracks made this inquiry. "Why don't we have a Teenage Club or something? We children have no place to go, except to run on the streets, join gangs, and go to hell." In the solution of this social problem the ninth grade pupils prepared in common learnings a petition, obtained signatures in the school and community, and elected three pupils to present the petition to the City Council. In a short time adequate recreational facilities were provided this district because the flexibility of the common learnings program, *discovered the social problem* and probably kept a number of youth from "going to hell" due to the deficiencies of other institutions in the community.

3. In accepting common learnings for the education of *all* boys and girls in West Junior High School, it was essential that the professional workers understand the significance of Dr. J. R. McGuahy's statement in his book, *Evaluation of an Elementary School*. "*Pupils are persons and each pupil differs from every other pupil.*" Since fully twenty-five per cent of the seven hundred students have parents who were born in Mexico, Italy, Poland, and Russia, one of the large areas in the common learnings curriculum was intercultural. The great elements and qualities of Mexican culture, commonly found in music, art, industrial arts, and other areas, were given special emphasis in common learnings classes. Likewise, outstanding features of American culture which emphasized freedom, democracy, self-government, individual rights of human beings, Fatherhood of God, the brotherhood of man, American industry, and the

English language became a permanent part of the common learnings program in each grade.

4. One of the main reasons for changing to common learnings was to help the professional workers "*Keep in mind that the purposes of education must be focused on the welfare of the child,*" as recently expressed by Dr. William A. Yeager, in his book, *Administration and the Pupil*. The longer period with fewer pupils of junior high school age, made it possible for the teachers of common learnings to help each pupil to grow and to develop fully up to his maximum abilities regardless of high or low mental ability, Americans or foreign nationality, rich or poor, employed or idle, law-abiding or delinquent.

Following these professional studies and philosophies of education of common learnings, teachers readily volunteered to teach the new program. Only one of the teachers, a former Latin and algebra teacher, who volunteered to teach common learnings, stated after one year experimentation, "I have to teach again, eighth grade common learnings, and I hate everything about it." Immediately this teacher's assignment was changed because no teacher should be scheduled to teach boys and girls in common learnings or any other core program that she hates.

No program that demands as many changes in educational philosophy and in secondary school practice, as common learnings, should ever be attempted even by teachers who have voluntarily accepted the assignment; unless the administration provides the teachers ample opportunity for experimentation and adequate supervision on all levels of instruction—in the classroom, in the school, and in the community.

The program of supervision had to be informal and constant. When one of the common learnings teachers in West Junior High School, who was on the program of the National Secondary-School Principals Association in Kansas City, Missouri, last year, was asked from the floor, "Who supervised the program of common learnings, and why did you not include the principal as a supervisor?" she replied, "We don't count the principal as a supervisor, he is just one of us."

THE COMMON LEARNINGS PROGRAM IN THE REGULAR HIGH-SCHOOL SCHEDULE

The program of studies for the six common learnings groups in the seventh grade for this year is given on page 162. The pupils in the common learnings groups of A, B, and C meet for two and one-half periods in the morning; and the pupils in the groups of D, E, and F meet for two and one-half periods in the afternoon. During the other four and one-half periods of the school day the pupils are assigned to arithmetic, health and physical education, a fine art, a practical art, and lunch for half of a period. There are three full-time teachers of common learnings in the seventh grade with the first period open.

The program of studies for the six common learnings groups in the eighth grade for this year is also given on page 162. It is similar to the seventh grade school schedule, except the pupils have speech for one semester and a choice of music or art for the other semester. The three full-time teachers of com-

PROGRAM OF STUDIES FOR SEVENTH GRADE, 1950-1951

<i>Periods</i>	<i>Group A</i>	<i>Group B</i>	<i>Group C</i>	<i>Group D</i>	<i>Group E</i>	<i>Group F</i>
I	Art		Ph.Ed.	Art		Ph.Ed.
II	Music	Arith	Health	Music	Arith	Health
	C. L.	C. L.	C. L.	Arith	Art	Art
III					Music	Music
	C. L.	C. L.	C. L.	Ph.Ed.	Ph.Ed.	Arith
				Health	Health	
IV	C. L.	C. L.	C. L.	H. M.	H. M.	H. M.
	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch	Ind. A.	Ind. A.	Ind. A.
V	Ph.Ed.	Ph.Ed.	Arith	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch
	Health	Health		C. L.	C. L.	C. L.
VI	Arith	Art	Art	C. L.	C. L.	C. L.
		Music	Music			
VII	H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	C. L.	C. L.	C. L.
	Ind. A.	Ind. A.	Ind. A.			

Groups A, F, and C have art first semester and music second semester; but groups B, D, and E have music first semester and art second semester.

Homemaking consists of one-half year of foods and the other half year of clothing. Likewise, industrial arts consists of one-half year of drafting and the other half year of metals.

mon learnings in the eighth grade are not assigned a group the fourth hour as shown below.

In the ninth grade the schedule for the six groups in common learnings this year is like the one in the seventh and eighth grades. But the pupils in the ninth grade have more elective single period subjects and personal inter-

PROGRAM OF STUDIES FOR EIGHTH GRADE, 1950-1951

<i>Periods</i>	<i>Group A</i>	<i>Group B</i>	<i>Group C</i>	<i>Group D</i>	<i>Group E</i>	<i>Group F</i>
I	C. L.	C. L.	C. L.	H. M.	H. M.	H. M.
				Ind. A.	Ind. A.	Ind. A.
II	C. L.	C. L.	C. L.	Ph.Ed.	Ph.Ed.	Ph.Ed.
				Health	Health	Health
III	C. L.	C. L.	C. L.	Speech	Arith	Arith
	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch			
IV	Arith	Speech	Arith	Arith	Music	Music
					Art	Art
V	H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch
	Ind. A.	Ind. A.	Ind. A.	C. L.	C. L.	C. L.
VI	Ph.Ed.	Ph.Ed.	Ph.Ed.	C. L.	C. L.	C. L.
	Health	Health	Health			
VII	Speech	Arith	Band	C. L.	C. L.	C. L.

Groups A, B, and D have speech first semester and the choice of art or music second semester. Groups E and F have choice of art or music first semester and speech second semester. Group C elected band and has it for both semesters.

Homemaking is a year's course; but industrial arts consists of one-half year of woods, and the other half year of crafts.

est and pre-vocational courses — namely; algebra, general science, mathematics, physical education, art, music, band, speech, clothing, vocational foods, metals, drafting, woods, crafts, and electricity. The three full-time ninth-grade teachers in common learnings have also the fourth class period vacant for co-operative planning and supervision.

FAVORABLE EDUCATIONAL RESULTS
FROM COMMON LEARNINGS PROGRAM

After five years' experience with the above described common learnings program the professional workers of West Junior High School have expressed these favorable educational results:

1. *A smaller number of pupils for each teacher of common learnings to understand.* A reduction from one hundred fifty to sixty pupils per teacher removed a major school administrative block for making the child the focal point of the curriculum. The teachers had more time to devote to a smaller number of pupils. They studied the pupil as a whole person and had more time to give to the solution of his personal problems at school, at home, and in the community. Naturally, West Junior High School had fewer maladjusted pupils and consequently fewer disciplinary problems in school from day to day, week to week, and month to month.
2. *Fewer teachers for each pupil to know.* Each pupil is required to know only five teachers but in the traditional junior high school each pupil has to become acquainted with seven or eight teachers, including a home room teacher. It is obvious that the pupils do a better job of co-operative planning when they have fewer teachers and more time with their teacher of common learnings. Once a seventh grade boy in West Junior High School, prior to the introduction of common learnings, was sent to the office by his teacher to return the book, *Helping Teachers to Understand Children*. As the boy placed the book on the desk, he remarked, "When do you think they will write a book, *Helping Children to Understand Teachers*?" The common sense answer to this important junior high school question today is to reduce the number of teachers through common learnings or some other core program.
3. *Smaller gap between the elementary and junior high schools.* The teachers reported last year that one of the most important advantages of common learnings was that it is easier transition from elementary school procedure and that pupils are less confused and more readily oriented into junior high school. During the two years of experimentation in common learnings in seventh grade, a majority of the parents answering a questionnaire about the advantages and disadvantages of the new program replied that their children were happier and less confused in going from elementary to junior high school than their older children had been. The new program also gave their children a feeling of belonging to their common learnings home group and teacher, which more nearly resembled the organization in the elementary school.
4. *More opportunity for supervision and curriculum construction on school time.* In the design for common learnings, it was possible to have the same class period vacant daily for the teachers of each grade to meet for in-service training, co-operative planning, demonstrations, and curriculum construction. This year, the seventh grade teachers have their planning meetings during the first hour and the eighth grade teachers during the fourth hour. (See program of studies for seventh and eighth grades). The ninth grade teachers of common learnings also met the fourth hour, their open period.
The chairman, elected by the common learnings teachers of each grade, and the supervising principal usually call a plan meeting when the need arises, which is usually every two or three weeks. These supervisory meetings were of unusual value in broadening the curriculum beyond just the classroom boundaries. Here areas of learning were elected and planned by teachers and representative pupils from each common learnings group on school building and community levels. This could not be done in the traditional junior high school in which every class changed teacher and room every hour.
5. *More time and better school organization for guidance and adjustment.* There

is considerable variation in the common learnings guidance program in junior high schools in different school systems, and within the same school system. This difference in guidance is largely caused by too many administrators and teachers still trying to carry over the old home room plan of the junior high school in order to keep each teacher of two common learnings groups from also having two home rooms.

After three years' experience with common learnings, the teachers of the new program unanimously voted that the records and activities related to *pupil personnel and guidance* belong with the teacher who has the pupils in class *the longest period of time each day*—the common learnings teachers. Therefore, the other teachers reported their grades for the report card, data for cumulative record card, and other information for guidance purposes to common learnings teachers. Also the responsibility for guiding pupils in selecting school programs from year to year and for helping them to meet their needs and solve their problems was delegated to the common learnings teachers for the pupils of *two groups* and not *one group*. Of course, the teachers of other subjects and personal interest courses were also urged to continue to guide and adjust pupils in every way possible.

In the early years of common learnings, in West Junior High School, the counselor who was teaching one and sometimes two classes felt that she would not have enough guidance work to do with seven hundred pupils. She even volunteered to teach additional courses. However, it was not long with the common learnings program in operation in all grades until this same capable counselor had to surrender her teaching assignments and also be given a clerk. The teachers, especially the common learnings teachers, were discovering many more pupil needs and problems. Prior to the common learnings guidance program, these needs and problems of the pupils were usually overlooked or entirely missed because the traditional junior high school organization focal point was *subjects—not boys or girls*.

Then simultaneously with increased guidance the percent of total final grades that were F, decreased from twenty-one percent prior to common learnings to less than one percent in 1949-50. All the pupils were kept track of and guided to such an extent that virtually all of them worked fully up to their maximum abilities. Also achievements in the subjects reading, language, and spelling, as indicated by standardized tests showed greater gain and higher scores for each pupil than were made under the old subject plan of school organization. Pupils in common learnings always needed sharper and more effective tools of learning.

6. *Greater amount of group and work type procedure within the classrooms.* The longer class period of two and one-half hours permitted the pupils in each group to do more planning and working under the guidance of their teacher. Many units and activities were planned and successfully carried on within the classroom, which broke up subject boundaries and solved real problems of the students and of their community. The following is a summary of a few of these projects attempted this school year. The projects vary from year to year because they are not pre-determined but are initiated by the pupils and teachers as the problem arises.

- a. Making and using a spelling book of different words found in the written work of the pupils in the group.
- b. Studying man's struggle for freedom and democracy from beginning of history to the ratification of the Constitution of the United States.
- c. Taking trips to Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish churches in the study of churches.
- d. Surveying parks and playground facilities of the community and city for the purpose of proposing an adequate program of recreation for all youth in the community. After the second year with a winter and sum-

- mer community recreation program, the number of youth sixteen years and under arrested, was reduced from the highest of the twelve high school districts to the least number of arrests in any of the high school districts.
- e. Locating and studying the places of historical significance in the community in preparation for a pageant in the city centennial celebration of 1950.
 - f. Visiting polling places and the election commission offices to learn how to vote.
 - g. Preparing an assembly program showing how the people in the community of many nationalities and races can improve their practices of brotherhood.
7. *More convenient to plan projects which concern welfare of the pupils in the whole school.* The following programs on a school building level were cooperatively planned by teachers and pupils this year and they included many of the fundamental knowledges and skills in a more meaningful and functional way than if each basic subject was treated separately:
- a. The every-pupil reading program has brought the public library into the curriculum and it has eliminated the non-reader and reduced the necessity for remedial reading.
 - b. The school paper, *The Scout*, is a part of the curriculum in which every pupil in common learnings participated in writing news for his group.
 - c. Beautification of the classrooms and schoolgrounds is a continuous building project from year to year.
 - d. Audio-visual program for class work is planned by the pupils and teachers each semester with pupil operators.
 - e. Club programs bring into the curriculum the educational and social forces of the community and city, such as, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Scouting, city recreation, Junior Red Cross, community athletic leagues, anglers club, photography club, and neighborhood council.
 - f. Surveys and studies of housing facilities by common learnings groups helped to obtain a \$4,000,000 housing project of five hundred units in the northern part of the high school district.
 - g. Intercultural programs are continuous with new problems emerging from year to year for study and solution in common learnings.
 - h. Many investigations for the improvement of the school were made by the pupils in common learnings and then reported to school assemblies for approval and united action. The most recent one is the location of shelters from the atomic bomb and the new program of the school in Civil Defense.
8. *Wider use of community resources in the curriculum.* One of the most outstanding advantages of the common learnings program is that the two and one-half hour period makes instructional trips in the community possible and also provides ample time to select documentary materials and hear resourceful people of the community speak. So far this school year the following resources have been used or planned for the common learnings program:
- a. A trip to city market in a study of foods, seventh grade.
 - b. Nelson Art Gallery, seventh, eighth, and ninth grades.
 - c. Kansas City Museum, Seventh grade.
 - d. Post Office, seventh grade.
 - e. Light Institute, Kansas City Power and Light Company, eighth grade.
 - f. Telephone building, eighth grade.
 - g. Factories, seventh and eighth grades.
 - h. Study of the Pulse of the City, city monthly reports of all persons arrested, ninth grade.

- i. Police Department, ninth grade.
- j. Airport, eighth grade.
- k. Weather Bureau, eighth grade.
- l. County Court and City Council meetings, ninth grade.
- m. Courts, including trial by jury, ninth grade.
- n. City Water Works, eighth grade.
- o. Kansas City Star, newspaper, seventh grade.
- p. Television broadcasting station, ninth grade.
- q. Ford assembly plant, an example of industrial expansion by the American way, eighth grade.
- r. Liberty Memorial, World War I, eighth grade. After the first visit to Liberty Memorial, the common learnings groups of West Junior High School petitioned the City Council to ride the elevator to the top of the Liberty Memorial shaft free when accompanied by a teacher. The petition was granted and no longer do pupils have to pay a fee of twenty-five cents per person when on instructional trips.

There have been few, if any unfavorable educational results, reported for common learnings by the teachers, who started the program experimentally and have democratically grown with the work through continuous co-operative planning and supervision for the last seven years.

But some of the new teachers have had considerable difficulty in recent years of adjusting themselves to the new program because teacher-training colleges and universities are still lagging in the preparation of common learnings teachers. Why? Probably, these institutions of higher learning too often prefer to prepare teachers in their laboratory schools for junior high schools with the focal point of their curriculum subjects instead of adolescent boys and girls who are living through the most critical development stage in life.

Interrogators *L. N. Drake*, Principal, Mound Junior High School, Columbus, Ohio.

Consultants: *Allen Campbell*, Principal, Florence Nightingale Junior High School, Los Angeles, California.

SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL AND JUNIOR-COLLEGE SECTION

PRESIDING: *Ben M. Hanna*, Professor of Education, Baylor University, Waco Texas; Member, Executive Committee, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

CHAIRMAN: *Galen Jones*, Director, Division of Elementary and Secondary Schools, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

The Program of Life-Adjustment Education on the National Level.

RAYMOND W. GREGORY

IN January 1944, Dr. John W. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education, appointed a committee to study post-war problems in vocational education. For the next year and a half, members of that Committee, re-

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cruited from the staff of the Division of Vocational Education, and from the staffs of the respective State boards for vocational education were constantly at work assembling, analyzing, organizing, and interpreting data which were brought together and reviewed by them in final form on June 1945.

At the close of that June meeting, the group received words of praise from one of the outstanding leaders in the field of vocational education, Dr. Charles A. Prosser. Anyone recognizing in him the driving and dynamic force that promoted and developed the basic concept of vocational education in the public schools of this country should have realized that the finest praise to come from his lips would be a challenge for future service.

This is exactly what happened. As a consequence, the Prosser Resolution was born. Dr. Prosser said in effect that:

It is the belief of this conference that, with the aid of this report in final form, the vocational school of a community will be able better to prepare twenty per cent of its youth of secondary school age for entrance upon desirable skilled occupations; and that the high school will continue to prepare twenty per cent of its students for entrance to college. We do not believe that the remaining sixty per cent of our youth of secondary-school age will receive the life adjustment training they need and to which they are entitled as American citizens—unless and until the administrators of public education, with the assistance of the vocational education leaders, formulate a comparable program for this group.

We, therefore, request the U. S. Commissioner of Education and the Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education to call at some early date a conference or a series of regional conferences, between an equal number of representatives of general and of vocational education, to consider this problem and to take such initial steps as may be found advisable for its solution.

After receiving the resolution, the U. S. Commissioner of Education waited until the Director of the new Division of Secondary Education had been appointed and then asked him to plan, in co-operation with the Division of Vocational Education, a series of conferences to consider the meaning and implications of the resolution and the possible means by which solutions to the problem could be devised.

From the beginning, this enterprise has been a joint undertaking of the Division of Secondary Education and the Division of Vocational Education. A U. S. Office of Education committee, composed of representatives from both Divisions, prepared the agenda and made plans for five regional conferences. The first and pilot conference was held in April, 1946, in New York City; the second, in Chicago the following June; the third, in Cheyenne in late September of the same year; the fourth, a week later in Sacramento; and the fifth and final regional conference was held in Birmingham in November, 1946.

The membership of each of these conferences was composed of leaders from the fields of vocational education and of general secondary education which included principals of secondary schools, State directors and supervisors of vocational education, superintendents of schools, staff members of State departments of education, administrators and professors from teacher training institutions, directors of curriculum and instruction, directors and research

specialists in pupil personnel services, and officers of national organizations of workers in these several areas. These participants came from what may be accurately described as every geographical region, with representatives from thirty-five States and the District of Columbia.

It was in the light of facts uncovered at the five regional conferences that it was deemed appropriate for the national conference to *prepare a plan for organizing, financing, and administering a three-phase action program on the Prosser Resolution which aimed at*

1. Creating a wide understanding of the problem and its implications.
 - a. On the part of the general public.
 - b. On the part of all school people.
2. Stimulating in States and selected communities programs or aspects of programs which will be suggestive to other States and other schools.
3. Promoting the initiation, operation, and continued development of such education services in every community.

Chief among the accomplishments of the National Conference was the recommendation "that a Commission shall be formed and that it shall be designated 'Commission on Life Adjustment Education For Secondary School Youth,' and that the purpose of the Commission shall be to promote in every manner possible, ways and means, and devices for improving the life adjustment education of secondary school youth."

Immediately after the adjournment of the National Conference, the U. S. Commissioner of Education took cognizance of the action taken by the conference and secured nominations from the following national organizations from which appointments to the Commission were made.

American Association of School Administrators

American Association of Junior Colleges.

American Vocational Association

National Association of High-School Supervisors and Directors of Secondary Education.

National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

National Association of State Directors of Vocational Education

National Catholic Welfare Conference.

National Education Association.

National Council of Chief State School Officers.

The Commission was organized in October, 1947, and since that time has held several meetings and promoted many conferences, all for the purpose of a further implementation of the full meaning of the Prosser Revolution. The Commission early approved a statement of purposes and has centered its attention upon and geared its efforts to their realization. It has said that:

Life Adjustment Education is designed to equip all American youth to live democratically with satisfaction to themselves and profit to society as home members, workers, and citizens. It is concerned especially with a sizable proportion of youth of high school age (both in school and out) whose objectives are less well served by our schools than the objectives of preparation for either a skilled occupation or higher education.

The Commission defined Life Adjustment Education as that which better equips all American youth to live democratically with satisfaction to themselves and profit to society as home members, workers, and citizens. It is concerned with ethical and moral living and with physical, mental and emotional health. It recognizes the importance of fundamental skills since citizens in a democracy must be able to compute, to read, to write, to listen, and to speak effectively. It emphasizes skills as tools for further achievements. It is concerned with the present problems of youth as well as with their preparation for future living. It is for all American youth and offers them learning experiences appropriate to their capacities. It recognizes the importance of personal satisfactions and achievement for each individual within the limits of his abilities. It respects the dignity of work and recognizes the educational values of responsible work experience in the life of the community. It provides both general and specialized education but, even in the former, common goals are to be attained through differentiation both as to subject matter and experience. It has many patterns. For a school, a class, or a pupil, it is an individual matter. The same pattern should not be adopted in one community merely because it was effective in another. It must make sense in each community in terms of the goals which are set and the resources which are available. It emphasizes deferred as well as immediate values. For each individual it keeps an open road and stimulates the maximum achievement of which he is capable. It recognizes that many events of importance happened a long time ago but holds that the real significance of these events is in their bearing upon life of today. It emphasizes active and creative achievements as well as adjustment to existing conditions; it places a high premium upon learning to make wise choices, since the very concept of American democracy demands the appropriate revising of aims and the means of attaining them. It is education fashioned to achieve desired outcomes in terms of character and behavior. It is not education which follows convention for its own sake or holds any aspect of the school as an end in itself rather than a means to an end. Above all, it recognizes the inherent dignity of the human personality.

The goal of the Commission is to assist in increasing the effectiveness of present efforts through education to meet the imperative needs of all youth. To that end, it is concerned with stimulating programs which more adequately meet the needs of pupils now in school. Even more, it is concerned with the types of education needed by adolescent youths who drop out of school because their needs are not being met realistically. As a means of achieving these aims the Commission proposed:

1. To stimulate the development of programs of education more in harmony with life adjustment needs of all youth by encouraging in each State the organization of a selected group of secondary schools which will make co-operative efforts to improve.
2. To locate effective instructional materials prepared to meet needs which have been revealed in actual situations, and to co-operate in the development of additional materials.

3. To identify schools already serving the great majority of youth in a comprehensive way in their communities and to study their administrative practices, instructional techniques, and the quality and character of the learning activities.
4. To keep the educational profession and the general public continuously informed of the significant activities and findings of the Commission and co-operating groups.

The Commission on Life Adjustment Education for youth is unique in that its major responsibility is that of translating into action recommendations contained in reports which other commissions or committees have made. The Commission functions most effectively in co-operation with State Departments of Education. It expresses its willingness to assist these State Departments of Education to the end that Life Adjustment Education becomes thoroughly incorporated into the educational offering of all schools within the State. The Commission is in an advisory relationship to the U. S. Office of Education and works through a steering committee in the office.

The Commission has held two National Work Conferences on Life Adjustment Education for State and local school leaders in Washington, D. C., on October 11 - 15, 1948, and October 10 - 13, 1949. In attendance at the first conference were 83 representatives from 25 States and the District of Columbia; while there were 224 representatives attending the second conference from 32 States and the District of Columbia.

In the first instance, it was the purpose of the conference to present to the participants a general over-view of the problems on Life Adjustment Education and to help make plans for starting programs for Life Adjustment in their schools. The second conference, in reality an extension of the first conference was attended by a large number of those who were present at the first conference as well as many others who were attending for the first time. The second conference, building on what was accomplished in the conference of October, 1948, worked on the problem of "identifying and evaluating programs for meeting the needs of youth of secondary school age." A third National Work Conference on Life Adjustment Education was held in Chicago, Illinois, on January 22 - 27, 1950, at the request of superintendents of schools in cities of more than 200,000 population. This conference was arranged by the U. S. Commissioner of Education, Earl J. McGrath, and was conducted under the immediate direction of the steering committee on Life Adjustment Education of the Office of Education. A report of the deliberations of this conference is found in the publication, *Why Do Boys and Girls Drop Out of School and What Can We Do About It*.

The plan of the work committee of this conference made, among others, the following recommendation:

Although considerable research into the drop-out problem has been carried on, no conclusive evidence is available. Local schools are encouraged in continuing the study of this problem to establish a research design which offers promise of yielding valid answers in such areas as the educational needs of early school

leavers and the effectiveness of new programs or services introduced to meet those needs.

As a result of this recommendation, there was a meeting of the Committee on Co-operative Research in Large City School Systems in Washington, D.C., November 13 - 15, 1950.

The six problems agreed upon by this committee were an illustration of the specificity in attack that can be made upon special aspects of the general program of Life Adjustment Education. These problems were: (1) A plan for basic, uniform accounting procedures which would make possible the collection of comparable data concerning drop-outs and school-leavers. (2) A plan for general over-all curriculum research using basic education principles as "articles of agreement" guiding programs in co-operating schools and a common pattern of evaluation. (3) A plan for curriculum research which recognizes promising current on-going programs of curriculum improvement with deviations from "standard" practices. Cities and schools entering into co-operative experimentation under this plan would use evaluative criteria to plan 2 above. (4) A plan for partial or limited experimentation involving a phase or single area of the curriculum. Schools interested in this plan would use evaluative criteria common to plan 1 above. (5) A plan for co-operative research in the appraisal of pupils, their characteristics, and growth. (6) A plan for co-operative research in carrying on follow-up studies.

A second conference of representatives from cities of more than 200,000 population was held at the Congress Hotel, Chicago, February 5 - 7, 1951. The purposes of the conference were: (1) To discuss and clarify the six proposals for co-operative research. (2) To refine plans for carrying out the proposals in schools and school systems. (3) To select proposals in which a given school system is interested and to make tentative commitments for carrying them out.

Members of the staff of the Office of Education are constantly participating in meetings with Life Adjustment Education and are preparing articles to help keep the public informed on this movement in education. Two of the articles that have appeared in *School Life* are: "Toward Life Adjustment Through a Special Education," January, 1951; and "Road Blocks to Life Adjustment Education," November, 1949.

The American Vocational Association released in December, 1950, a booklet, "A New Look at Life Adjustment Education — Contribution of Practical Arts and Vocational Education to Life Adjustment Education."

After the National Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth had carried on its work for three years and had completed the term of office for which it was appointed, a National Conference was called by the U. S. Commissioner of Education, Dr. Earl J. McGrath. His purposes were: (1) To give the Commission an opportunity to present an account of its stewardship; and (2) to receive further instructions from the conference concerning the future of life adjustment education activities. Some 200 of the leading educators from 41 States and the District of Columbia met in a three day conference

in Chicago, October 16-18, at the Sherman Hotel, to hear a summary report of the Commission on its stewardship and to plan future activities for the further development of Life Adjustment Education. Three specific tasks were presented to Conference participants: (1) to review the Report of the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth and to make suggestions for its improvement; (2) to review experiences and make suggestions for the further development of life adjustment education programs at State and local levels; (3) to make recommendations to the U. S. Commissioner of Education concerning the future of life adjustment education activities.

The Conference made and approved several recommendations. One dealt with a Commission on Life Adjustment Education which was as follows:

That the U. S. Commissioner of Education appoint a new Commission for a period of three years to continue the study and to promote action programs for education of youth for life adjustment. The membership of this Commission should represent the organizations represented in the preceding Commission, with the addition of lay representation, a representative of teacher education, a representative of classroom teachers, and representatives of such other groups as the Commissioner may designate.

The U. S. Commissioner of Education has followed that recommendation and has appointed a new commission on life Adjustment Education for Youth, made up of representatives from the twelve organizations recommended. This new commission has been appointed for a three-year term and will hold its first meeting in Washington, D. C., on Friday and Saturday, February 23-24, 1951.

Without fear of contradiction, it can be said that the ideas and the ideals, real and implied, in the Prosser Resolution have taken a hold upon the hearts and minds of leaders in education throughout the length and breadth of this country and that we are now on the verge of a movement in secondary education that may be the most profound that has taken place since the inauguration of vocational education under the provisions of the National Vocational Education Acts. Dr. Prosser's challenge caught fire.

The Program of Life-Adjustment Education on the State Level

PAUL D. COLLIER

I. INTRODUCTION

PARTICIPATION in this latest effort to improve education for youth, which is called Education for Life Adjustment, has been voluntary. Many states have permitted a brief description of their programs to be included in the report of the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth which was submitted to the National Conference in Chicago for its consideration in

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October, 1950. The large number of publications that have been listed with brief annotation at the end of chapter III entitled, "State Programs of Life Adjustment Education," is only a sample of the range of efforts in the country to improve education for youth. The three-year period, 1947-50, covering the existence of the named Life Adjustment Education movement, represents only a fraction of the time that localities and states have devoted to necessary improvements, which are deemed so vital for youth education today.

For decades, the educational profession in our country through research, experimentation, surveys, committees, and commissions, has contributed much knowledge and has developed outstanding pronouncements which have resulted in great and continuous improvement in secondary education. The commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth is not claiming credit for outstanding practices which have been initiated and developed by all states and many localities over a long period, but rather, within the limits of its time, personnel, and financial resources, it has encouraged action and has briefly publicized some outstanding reports of progress. The commission has recognized that a bulge of progress in one state or locality may be a place of relative inactivity or "holding the line" in others. There are many paths of progress leading in the same direction, marked by guideposts previously established. It is hoped that these guideposts, being re-emphasized as a result of the commission's work, have lent encouragement and assurance to those who are moving toward goals which have long been envisioned.

It is my job at this meeting to select from among the great number of issues and problems at the state level, some which reveal growing edges in educational improvement.

II. MARSHALLING EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES FOR IN-SERVICE IMPROVEMENT

Properly staffed state departments of education have greatly influenced educational improvement. Even those having funds for only a limited number of qualified consultants have made noteworthy achievements. However, superior and most effective programs of in-service improvement of personnel have been the result of combined and co-ordinated efforts of local teachers and administrators and supervisors, teacher education faculties of the colleges and universities, augmenting the staffs of the State Departments. The efforts have been most effective when emphasis is placed on the identification and solution of real problems. Extension and summer courses, workshops and conferences which are based on practical educational problems will continue to increase in number and effectiveness. Policies on co-ordination should not be left to chance or a competitive approach by various educational institutions and agencies qualified to render valuable services. Questions concerning credit and other recognition must be satisfactorily resolved for those who participate. Local and state boards of education should increasingly share in the expenses of in-service training, although foundations may strategically support pilot programs. Many outstanding programs of co-operative in-service training are in evidence throughout the nation. The Workshops in New

Hampshire and the Secondary School Curriculum Program of Illinois are two splendid examples of co-ordinated efforts. Many states have made significant progress in marshalling their forces for improved in-service experiences for all educational personnel in local school systems, other schools and colleges and state departments of education. The concept that all in the profession should continuously be stimulated through programs of in-service improvement, develops most effective teamwork.

III. AREAS IN WHICH GREATEST PROGRESS CAN BE MADE ARE DETERMINED BY
CONDITIONS AND RESOURCES WITHIN THE STATE

I have already pointed out that progress in education is made on a broken front. A bulge of progress in one state may represent a sector of inactivity or "holding the line" in others. Great care must be taken, however, to prevent losing ground in some important areas while surging forward in others. To insist on 100% participation in any one project may be a detriment to many valid local programs. From reports received from states, a successful practice uses groups of schools rather than the entire number of schools for making studies of particular problems. For example, a few schools may be making a drop-out study while others may be studying the program of common learnings. Other examples in which studies have been made by a few schools in a state are; holding power, follow-up studies of graduates, evaluation of guidance services, appraising opportunities for specialization, effectiveness of instructional techniques, and analyses of various curriculum areas. When significant studies are made by various groups of schools within a state, the State Department facilitates the exchange of information. A particular school is not confined or limited to one study but may make additional studies or repeat, if desired, those which have already been made in other schools. From the numerous studies which can be made, those should be selected that make sense in terms of faculty improvement and community conditioning for needed developments in the educational program.

IV. ALL STATES ARE FACED WITH THE NEED FOR ADDITIONAL
AND IMPROVED BUILDINGS AND OTHER FACILITIES

Redistricting is a problem in all states. In states having a large percentage of small schools and inadequate programs, the problem of redistricting is very acute. However, educational improvements cannot wait for the long-term program of redistricting and the construction of ideal school buildings. Many youth will complete the secondary school before adequate school buildings can be constructed. Therefore, the organization and administration of a school should make sense with size, resources and personnel duly considered. The small school cannot be organized on the same schedule and pattern which prevails in large schools. The schedule, curriculum organization, instructional techniques, pre-service and in-service training of teachers, and certification must all be considered in terms of the job of the very small schools. Ingenuity should be encouraged in all schools, especially the smaller ones.

A recent study in Connecticut shows that funds available for library services and materials, visual aids, equipment, and instructional materials are inadequate. In fact, Connecticut ranks low when compared with other states in the provision of these instructional materials and equipment.

V. SUSTAINED SUPPORT OF EDUCATION DEPENDS UPON ADULT-LAY CITIZEN
AND YOUTH CONDITIONING

Educational conditioning of the teacher is accomplished primarily through pre-service and in-service training. However, the conditioning of the teacher can be only partially effective without the judgments of other adult-citizens and youth. One of the most significant trends in the country is the adult-lay citizen participation in all areas and on all educational levels. Adult-lay citizens help through a great variety of activities in all of the states. This program is increasing in scope everywhere. Greater understanding and more adequate support of sound education may result from this co-operative activity.

However, while the lay-citizens may become semi-professional in making judgments on problems involving the process and program of education, we, the teachers must be better prepared. We, the teachers must be the professional groups truly and soundly educated concerning the programs and "know how" in secondary education. We must also be able and willing to analyze the needs of the individual youth and tailor education to meet these needs. Any one of the profession who is poorly prepared unavoidably puts the status of the profession in jeopardy when dealing with intelligent lay people. The next few years will reveal, as we inevitably work with lay citizens, whether we have a profession which can maintain its status as such.

While state departments of education have a great responsibility to citizens, they have an even greater responsibility to teachers in providing information, leadership, and service. Not from a selfish viewpoint but from a broader view the pupils and other people of this nation need a teaching profession that can qualify in every sense of the word. A state department may unwittingly do youth and education a dis-service if it works with its citizens alone, over the heads or around the teachers.

Youth are increasingly helping on the local level. However, this phase of co-operation is only beginning. As children and youth mature they should increasingly broaden the scope and quality of their participation. Through state and local efforts the three great groups, namely, the adult-lay citizen and youth and the teachers, will certainly make education a community enterprise.

VI. DEFINING AND EMPHASIZING THE PROGRAM OF COMMON LEARNINGS
IS IN EVIDENCE IN ALL STATES

Great accomplishment in defining the elements to be included in the program of common learnings for all pupils is in evidence. The common learnings program is designed to meet the maturity levels and needs of individual pupils. It is, therefore, not a static program offered to all pupils regardless of their abilities and needs. The following have a high priority on all lists of

elements for the common learnings: Citizenship, Home and Family Living, Health and Allied Elements, General Vocational Elements, Functional Programs in Communication Arts, Science and Mathematics, Art and Music. There are many blocks to the inclusion of some of these proposed elements in the common learnings program. The State Department of Education should help remove these blocks wherever possible. Among the important blocks discovered are the following:

1. Difficulty in scheduling and time allotments
2. Lack of funds and community support
3. Fear of college entrance requirements
4. The conviction that the element is covered incidentally in another area
5. A belief that some pupils do not need it
6. The belief that a non-school agency is responsible for it

VII. UNITED EFFORTS IN STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION BETWEEN
VOCATIONAL AND GENERAL EDUCATION.

In the first place, a better common learnings program is developing in vocational-technical schools. In the second place, the extension of vocational education and opportunities for majoring and specialization has been strongly recommended for the comprehensive secondary school. There is no longer an "either-or" choice. Every youth is entitled to common learnings and vocational education, at least, of a general character.

VIII. EXPLORATORY INTEREST-ROUSING CONFERENCES HAVE BEEN HELD
IN ALL STATES

These exploratory conferences have been spring-boards for further action. They have been statewide or held in regions or localities of the state. These exploratory types of conferences are followed by others with definite and pointed attacks for the identification and solutions of problems at the local level. Both types of conferences have a significant place and function. The locality must finally write the ticket after determining the destination. All these conferences have been concerned with identifying the needs of youth, measuring maturity levels of youth in various areas of development, and concern for the individual as he is developing to be a citizen, a home member, and a worker.

These conferences have also dealt with problems of curriculum re-organization. Three types of organization are usually considered in these conferences, first, the developmental problems of youth; second, practical problems of living; and third, definite specific subjects. Most conferences are concerned with the relative influence of these three types of organization in final plans for their particular school. These conferences have also been concerned with balanced programs of education, and the reorganization of the secondary school. Faculty rather than individual solutions of problems has also been stressed.

IX. CAUTIONS.

We are not interested in education as usual, if it means a traditional pattern and content which has been handed down by tradition. We are interested, however, in good education for the individual, that is, the best tailored program for his needs. We should not swerve from our efforts to give the youth this kind of education, although we may be tempted to do so because of ill-advised council of individuals who are worried by international tensions and the economic situation. We should take great care to weigh all proposals to identify ill-advised "hot house" activities and methods. Many of these proposals will be designed to prepare youth for induction into the armed services; others will be designed to consider pupils as pawns, forgetting their importance as individuals. The intentions behind these proposals may be good but the activities and methods themselves may not be sound and may interfere with the best possible program for the individual.

As we develop a truly great educational program, it cannot inspire complete confidence and satisfaction until we can find better ways of demonstrating the growth and progress made by the individual pupil. There will continue to be a significant amount of dissatisfaction and mistrust of education by the majority of youth and their parents, so long as our present competitive marking system is the principal method of evaluation. State departments working for more satisfactory evaluation of pupils' progress will find that a panel discussion, a home-made radio, improved grooming, better home living, an exhibit in a science fair, and the like, would bring dividends in terms of parent and pupil understanding and support.

State departments of education will have to be on guard to prevent the term "Life Adjustment Education" from being used as a scapegoat by those who do not understand its meaning and purposes. Guidance, progressive education, and many other movements which have contributed greatly to educational reorganization have gone through cycles where minds have been closed through misunderstanding. Through conversations which are carried on, through speeches which are delivered, and through documents which are prepared for distribution, patience and skill should be used in clarifying the values in "Life Adjustment Education."

X. CONCLUSION.

As the second Life Adjustment Education Commission begins its work, we in the State Departments should not diminish but rather increase our activities for improvement. State departments have broadened and deepened their attacks on important problems. They are gaining experience and "know-how" in a great variety of techniques. The growing edges of youth education are becoming more clearly identified. Programs of action should, therefore, become increasingly more effective. While several approaches or patterns of action have proved to be successful, state departments should give much thought and effort in finding better ones.

What the Small High School Is Doing About the Program of Life-Adjustment Education

CLARENCE A. BROCK

IT is time now for the Life Adjustment flower to begin to grow. We have dreamed long enough. Almost five years have gone by since Dr. Prosser's Resolution; and many times five years have passed since we first started giving lip service to the well worn objective of public education, "education for all the children of all the people."

Some educators would say that we should not try to force the flower by artificial stimulation; nor dare we graft onto the old plant; and surely we must never pull up the old and transplant the new. We don't agree. We do agree that our program must grow slowly, with much planning, with much selling to our school and lay people, and with much experimenting. Yes, the planning period has been necessary, but it is time for us to get our heads out of the clouds and our hands into the soil.

The program of Life Adjustment! What are the schools doing about it? Are we doing something about the needs of all our boys and girls? It is a good idea for us to compare notes, so that we can have the benefit of each other's successes and mistakes.

Over in West Virginia the most of our secondary schools are small, and the money available to equip and run them is far from ample. Yet, we are making an effort to meet the challenge of Life Adjustment Education.

The West Virginia Steering Committee has set into motion some experimentation that we would like to tell you about. We hope that you will give us some constructive criticism, and if, perchance, you can profit from our experiences, we shall be much pleased.

Since our state school organization is a county unit system, a county was designated to work on the project. Two schools within the county were elected to the role of pilot schools to carry out the experiment. One was a small junior high school, and the other was a six-year secondary school with an enrollment of about 400.

Under the leadership of the county school superintendent, the twelve county high school principals formed a committee to develop a general philosophy and to build a curriculum pattern in tune with the principles of Life Adjustment Education. The following eight areas of general education were outlined: (1) oral and written communication; (2) literature by discussion, reading, and listening; (3) health, recreation, and fitness; (4) the social studies; (5) physical and biological sciences; (6) applied arithmetic and elementary mathematics; (7) fine and applied arts, and handicrafts; and (8) home science, home arts, home skills, and consumer education.

The committee also made a time allocation table to cover the scope of the

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general courses. In grades 7 and 8, sixty hours per week, or the complete six-hour day, was expended in the general curriculum. In grades 9 to 12, fifty hours required per week in these areas, left one class hour for specialization. Thus, each graduating student could have four units in a special field; such as agriculture, commerce, industry, distributive education, or college preparatory courses. That is, if the needs of the enrollment and the facilities of the school make it possible.

You can see that there would be no time left in the day's schedule for traditional study halls. This was not an accidental result, but a part of the plan. It was thought that the formal study rooms too often tend to give the average pupil a poor learning experience, along with the formation of negative study habits. Therefore, directed study time was expected to be a part of each course, with a plan for scheduling the library to insure complete use of its possibilities.

It was hoped that this plan would not replace any of the so-called "activity outcomes," but rather would add to the results obtained in this field. A reduction in class period time, to give four extra periods per week, for activities such as clubs, student participation in school government, assemblies, intramural athletics, etc. was recommended.

The teachers of the two pilot schools, along with college and lay leaders, under the chairmanship of members of the county committee, developed each of the eight general areas into graded courses of instruction, with suggested methods and materials. The use of student panels, committees, projects and other laboratory techniques were usually suggested as the best methods of approach. The materials were developed around the needs of the individual pupil with emphasis on his immediate community.

The problem of selling the new program to the teachers, students, and parents was approached by using the challenge of their position of leadership, in a program designed to improve all secondary education. The pride involved in being pioneers was encouraged. A selected advisory committee of parents was used to make constructive criticisms and to help sell the people of the community on the program.

In September, 1949, we set the plans into motion and, needless to say, some problems soon began to appear. Textbook teachers were finding it difficult to pull out of their traditions. They, and even others, could not seem to find materials. The two biggest hurdles were: first, the tendency of many class room teachers to "water down" the materials to the level of the less able students; and second, the failure of some parents, students, and teachers to understand that subject matter had not been discarded.

The opportunities for the small school to take care of individual differences are somewhat more involved than in larger institutions, where more subject elections may be available to meet students' interests and abilities.

It was soon found that many of the more able students were not achieving their proper growth, and were loafing on the job. We found it necessary

to alter the success standards in most subjects to fit the abilities of the individual student. Objective tests, including achievement, intelligence, and reading batteries revealed data to help in the discovery of the student's learning power. The report card, which started out to be a letter from teacher to parent, was changed to indicate success or failure of the boy or girl to reach his proper level of achievement in keeping with his ability. A three-point marking plan using U, S, and H, according to the student's learning power, was adopted. The U means unsatisfactory work and carries an explanation by using a footnote on the reports; the S mark indicates satisfactory achievement; and the H is an honor grade, giving credit for extra effort on the part of the student.

Teaching materials on all levels, from the most elementary to the college level, were needed. The library took on a new importance as the center of the school. It changed its position as the study hall and became a true depot of learning materials. Individual and group guidance became more valuable in the scheme of things. All of the general areas were given definite assignments in serving the personal, civic, ethical, educational, and vocational demands.

How successful has the program been to date? Of course, the test of the plant is the fruit it bears. The harvest must come when our boys and girls become the men and women of tomorrow. Perhaps we should defer judgment until then. However, some attempt to evaluate the program was made at the close of the first year.

Statistically, we found it almost impossible to remove other factors contributing to the change in withdrawals, attendance, and student failures. The data seemed to reveal a trend towards improvement in these phases of school success. Teachers and students were asked to evaluate the new program. In answer to a twelve-question, unsigned, questionnaire as to their opinion on the improvement of the new plan over the old, the results were most gratifying. Approximately 75 per cent of the students claimed that they could see an over-all definite improvement over their previous educational experiences and 86 per cent of the teachers graded the total program favorably.

We do not claim to have all of the answers. We are looking for them. We have found these conclusions to be evident. Students seem to be happier. They seem to like to go to school now. The plan does not save work on the part of the teachers. It takes more planning and more vision. And, our version of Life Adjustment Education is not cheaper. Mark Hopkins' "Teacher and the log" are not enough. Up to date, ever-changing materials are very important.

If our efforts have helped to make a better society of human beings, if the fruit of our labors is a contribution to a happier world where people can live together in peace and mutual friendship, we can lift our heads in pride.

What the Large High School Is Doing About the Program of Life-Adjustment Education

T. H. BROAD

IN September, 1938, Daniel Webster High School opened its doors for the first time. The program of that year was a typical high-school program, designed primarily for students who would go to college. In the school year 1939-1940, the faculty began to study the community, the pupils, and the purposes of the high school. One of the first problems presented to the faculty was that of when to have faculty meetings. Out of that discussion came an agreement to meet twice a week — 8:00 to 8:45 in the morning. The faculty considered school problems as well as breaking up into smaller committees for work on certain kinds of related problems. Out of such faculty studies there developed certain outcomes which contributed toward meeting the needs of youth for life adjustment. At that time the term "life adjustment" was never used. Some of the early outcomes were:

1. Provision of planning time during the school day for some teachers to plan and work together.
2. An administrative devise of blocking three or four teachers with the same pupils for three periods. This allowed for free selection of problems, correlation and provided flexibility of teaching and administration.
3. Extra-curricular activities were curricularized.
4. There was a revision of the requirements for graduation and an increased number of electives provided.
5. Floating schedules were devised where classes meet only four times per week but for a period of seventy minutes each. The lengthened class period made it possible to eliminate study halls. Pupils were enrolled in six subjects.
6. Teachers studied teacher-pupil planning, and began use of that technique in the classrooms. Out of their experiences certain classes such as English and history were taught by one teacher to the same group of students.
7. One committee studied college-going graduates, and job opportunities offered in the community.
8. The faculty became concerned about the education of non-college-going pupils, and it brought about additional vocational course offerings, the use of more students in the school office, the opportunity for students in the bookstore, and the use of student custodians under the direction of the building superintendent.

HOW DANIEL WEBSTER HIGH SCHOOL WAS AFFECTED BY WORLD WAR II

Some of the outcomes of the faculty studies during the time of World War II brought a greater concern about the problems which were real to the pupils. An expanded testing program, special achievement tests to test the strengths and weakness of the pupil were offered. This brought before-school and after-school classes for students who wished to strengthen themselves. While the enrollment was high in such classes, no grades and no credits were given.

The student council assumed increasing responsibilities in student government. Its concern was primarily that of democratic operations throughout

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the school. One specific problem which confronted it brought about an all-school assembly for an open forum discussion conducted by the Student Council Cabinet, where no faculty members were present. All school forums dealing with problems of concern to pupils have been used extensively since then.

The faculty continued the study of individuals with an increasing concern and the assumption of responsibilities by each faculty member for providing for individual differences of pupils. This resulted in the developing of an all-school talent show, written and produced by the pupils, for which, school time is provided for rehearsals.

One faculty committee did an intensive and extensive study of graduates. The information gained on this study gave new impetus to curricular and instructional study and revision. Out of that came a course for ninth-grade students which we chose to call "Survey." This course provides eighteen class periods in each of these electives: speech; arts and crafts; music; woodshop; metal-shop; home economics; drafting; and library usage. This survey of electives proposes to give pupils an opportunity to work with materials in the shop or laboratory and with the teacher of that area. It serves as an orientation media as well as a guidance device.

Awards for all activities except athletics were eliminated.

The requirement of written passes for all students passing from rooms and through the halls was eliminated.

Pupils assumed full responsibilities for conducting school assemblies.

A Christmas sales training program which requires ten hours of class work after school made it possible to train as many as one third of our students who took sales jobs in the various stores before Christmas. These pupils were under the supervision of the school and time spent on the job counted as school attendance. In 1950, one third of the teachers spent at least one day in a store working as a sales person. This was to learn the problems of employees and employers so that teaching could be better done in respect to those going into sales work.

During the time of the war an additional study group made up of interested parents in the community was organized to study the school, its problems, and its pupils. This group of lay adults contributed many excellent suggestions for the school program.

RECENT OUTCOMES

As the school continued its growth and the faculty continued its studies, pupils had more and more freedom from adult domination. Teachers assumed the role of friend and counselor—guiding the experiences of the pupils, assuming a new role in the classroom where they were helping pupils organize their experiences so that learning takes place. Pupils assumed the responsibility for school dances—before school and at lunch time with no faculty supervision.

The ringing of bells for passing of classes was eliminated.

The cafeteria opened its doors to students all during the school day rather than just at noon.

Final examinations were dropped. In their stead there is a continuous evaluation of progress throughout the semester. More and more students were

working in the community, utilizing the resources of the community, particularly the human resources.

As a result of assessing the curriculum and evaluating it in terms of the ten imperative needs of youth, the faculty recommended a course for seniors which would meet the needs not then being met by the regular curriculum, and help bridge the gap between graduation and life after graduation. For lack of a better term, the name of "Senior Core," was given this course. No grades are given and no set course of study prevails.

Our experiences have taught us that seniors are particularly concerned about personal development, occupational orientation, family-life education, sex education, community orientation, consumer education, and orientation to college. This course as well as the others has caused some redirection of purpose of subject matter classes. Subject matter classes now place their emphasis in the contributions of their particular subject toward meeting the ten imperative needs of youth.

By way of summary here are some of the significant things being done in attempting to meet the needs of youth for life adjustment:

1. Longer class periods—elimination of study halls.
2. Active student council—concerning itself with problems of youth.
3. No ringing bells for passing classes.
4. Blocking groups of pupils with teachers providing planning time for teachers in order to make it possible to do a problems approach.
5. Two special courses
 - a. "Survey" for freshmen, designed to help orient them to the new school and to help in guiding them in their selection of elective subjects.
 - b. "Senior Core"—designed to help seniors meet certain needs of youth such as family-life adjustment, sex education, personal analysis, occupational orientation, community orientation, and orientation to college.
6. Democratic administration—teacher relations which set the pattern for democratic teacher-pupil relationships.
7. A school-wide concern for development of attitude essential for democratic citizenship.
8. A broader testing program utilizing test results to determine instructional materials and procedures to meet individual needs.
9. More freedom for scheduling and schedule changes throughout the year.
10. An increasing use of group processes in classrooms in problem solving and in other classroom procedures.
11. Use of current community-wide problems for study and action (parks—recreation—first oil well markers, *etc.*)
12. Increased work experience; *i.e.* distributive education—part-time students—Christmas sales class—and week of sales experience supervised by the school.
13. Special ungraded class for maladjusted boys.
14. Special core class for married girls.
15. Provision of real experiences for pupils—many things formerly done by teachers are being done by pupils; *i.e.* conducting assemblies, operating public address system, managing school recreation programs, writing and producing the all school show, *etc.*
16. Holding of pupil expenses to a minimum. A year's activity ticket is sold for \$2.50, plus tax, with provision of jobs for students to "work out" the cost of a ticket.

17. Pupils go on field trips in and out of town on their own, after careful planning.
18. Written excuses are no longer required for absence, the pupil makes his own explanation.
19. Use of detention has been eliminated.
20. Pupils have freedom of the building before school and at noon without faculty supervision.
21. Pupils have the privilege of smoking on the campus.

What the Community College Is Doing About the Program of Life-Adjustment Education

GERALD W. SMITH

THE expression, life-adjustment education, is not common in the literature of the community or junior college. The idea behind the concept of life-adjustment education, however, is found throughout the writing of general authors in the field and in the reports of practices of community colleges across the country. An analysis of practices in community colleges of the United States in the light of the explanation of life-adjustment education as described above indicates three degrees of activity on the part of such schools. It seems only fair to include all junior colleges in this discussion rather than to sort out just those institutions that have applied the name *community college*.

An analysis of what schools are doing shows, first of all, a group with programs which could be described as having very little to do with the program of life-adjustment education. Community colleges in this group have a curriculum geared almost solely to a university-parallel program. Such schools are designed to take the few well-qualified people from the senior high schools and afford them an opportunity in the local community to continue with the first two years toward the bachelor's degree. Some junior colleges in the United States have been created for that purpose and proceed with such a program. Obviously, the schools in this group do not carry on a program in agreement with the concept of life-adjustment education.

A second category includes schools that step up their programs a degree by adding to the university-parallel program the so-called terminal courses. These terminal courses, designed to serve the people in the community with offerings other than those which lead to a bachelor's degree, include a much wider portion of the population. It may be said that the community colleges in general which are struggling with this type program have an adequate and realistic program of terminal education. It is probably true that the word "terminal" appears in the literature many more times than courses can be found to match the word. It is also true that frequently people who have heard speeches about terminal programs or who have read articles in maga-

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zines or chapters in books are somewhat disillusioned when they try to find an actual program in operation in some school. Nevertheless, the community and junior colleges of this country are hard at work in this direction with a conviction that they are working for sound educational development. On this score, the community colleges may be credited with positive action in the direction of education for life-adjustment as defined in a rather full sense.

A third group of schools exists, and they are numerous as well as widely scattered across the country, which moves another step toward the realization of the concept under discussion here. These schools include those community or junior colleges which have wholeheartedly moved in the direction of serving as nearly as possible all of the local population who have educational interests. These schools normally have a curriculum which includes the university-parallel courses, the terminal courses, and the adult education activity in its many aspects. Where such schools exist, they stand like a shining light pointing toward the realization to a very full degree of the aspirations of those educational thinkers who believe that the concept of life-adjustment education implies a real responsibility upon the schools. The discouraging thing in the community college development is the shortage of schools which have this full purpose in their statement of policy or in the practices that they follow. The encouraging thing, however, is the growth in the number of schools which have taken on the full program of university-parallel, terminal, and adult education; schools which are offering every course within reasonable attainment in their community, whose doors are open day and evenings, and whose curriculums are completely flexible. The programs of such community colleges undoubtedly make up some of the outstanding progress in this country in the direction of the ideals set forth in the concept of life-adjustment education.

Interrogators *O. I. Schmaelzle*, Principal, George Washington High School,
and San Francisco, California.

Consultants: *C. Benton Manley*, Principal, Springfield Senior High School,
Springfield, Missouri.

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National Association of Secondary-School Principals

1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.,

Washington 6, D. C.

Annual Banquet

Saturday, February 10, 7:00 P. M., Century Room

PRESIDING: *W. L. Spencer*, Professor of Secondary Education, Huntingdon College, Montgomery, Alabama; President National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

MORE than seven hundred persons attended this banquet. Seated at the speakers' table and introduced by the President, *W. L. Spencer*, were the following: Father Norman O'Connor, Paulist Fathers, New York, New York; Miss Frieda Cooke, Principal, School for Girls, Alfred Street Girls' School, Manchester, England; Member of the National Executive Committee of the National Union of Teachers (similar to the NEA); Houston Peterson, Professor of Philosophy, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey; *W. L. Spencer*, Professor of Secondary Education, Huntingdon College, Montgomery, Alabama; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals; The Hon. Ernest A. Gross, Deputy Representative of the United States to the United Nations, New York, New York; Miss Mary Meade, Principal, Washington Irving High School, New York, New York; Co-Chairman of the New York Convention Committee; Frederick T. Rope, Educational Liaison Officer, United States Mission to the United Nations, New York, New York; Martin M. Mansperger, Principal, Freeport Junior-Senior High School, Freeport, New York; Co-Chairman, New York Convention Committee; and Paul E. Elicker, Executive Secretary, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D. C.

The Invocation was given by The Rev. John E. Burke, Paulist Fathers, New York, New York. A short musical program was presented by the Westfield High School Choir, Westfield, New Jersey, under the direction of Janet M. Grimler.

PROGRAM

1. *The Lord's Prayer*—choral arrangement of Albert Malotte's well-loved setting of the Prayer.
2. *My Lord, What a Morning*—a negro spiritual, arranged for eight-part a cappella chorus by the well-known Negro singer, Harry Burleigh.
3. *Flow Where the Waters Flow*—a very recent composition by Edward Milkey, formerly Director of Music in the schools of Mountain Lake, N. J.
4. *Marching Song*—by Ernest Lubin. This is a complicated composition for eight-part a capella chorus which describes with characteristic rhythmic and tonal effects the passing in parade of "youth on the march."
5. *Yonder, Yonder*—a nostalgic, deeply moving Russian folksong arranged by Samuel Gaines for soprano solo and accompanying a capella chorus.
6. *Kde Su Kravy Moje?*—a Slovak folksong arranged by Schimmerling. The choir sings the original Slovak lyric which tells of a cowhand who awakens from her sleep to find that her cows have strayed. She sets out to find them while singing "Kde su kravy moje?" (Where are my cows?) and then in faster and faster tempo proceeds to call each of her cows by name:—Cernusa, Belusa, Strakusa, Rohusa, Pondula, Brnusa, Babusa.

Membership of the Choir was chosen by try-out from tenth, eleventh, twelfth grades of the Westfield Senior High School whose total enrollment is 690. Distribution of parts were as follows: 34 Sopranos, 28 Altos, 24 Tenors, and 30 Basses.

Following the music, President Spencer presented the speakers of the evening.

The Story of the Evening Dresses and Tuxedos

EARLY in the Fall, several senior girls of the Westfield Choir decided that the choir's appearance at performances (particularly in New York on February 10th) would be greatly enhanced if all the girls wore identical evening dresses. One of the girls prepared sketches of possible dress designs from which the girls chose three to present to their mothers for approval. At a tea, which was held for the purpose, the mothers enthusiastically supported the project. The girls themselves decided on a color, a single dress pattern, and accessories.

One of the students approached the manager of a local store and was able to secure a sizeable discount by purchasing all the material for all the girls at the same time—some four-hundred yards. She and her committee cut the material into the required amounts and made up a package for each girl. The package contained the material, individual dress pattern, zipper, and three spools of matching thread, for which the cost was five dollars. It became the responsibility of each individual to make her own dress.

For some time the boys of Westfield High School have appeared in concert in tuxedos. The school owns ten such suits which have been donated by townspeople to the music department. A mothers' committee functions each year to help any boys who do not own, or who cannot borrow them. Generally, about fifty per cent of the boys fall into this category. The committee has always managed to find enough suits so that at the concert every one of more than one hundred boys is dressed in a tuxedo. The Hotel Commodore appearance was a relatively simple operation since only fifty-four boys were involved and only fifteen or twenty boys had to seek help from the mothers.

The Free World Faces Aggression

AMBASSADOR ERNEST A. GROSS

WARS begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defense of peace must be constructed." You know these words of the Charter of UNESCO. It is a principle which takes its places easily as part of the American tradition, since the strength of our system is based upon faith

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in the power and importance of the individual, and of what the individual believes in. The United Nations provides the framework for a collective security system which is the most practical method and the best hope of providing time in which all the elements of strength of the free world may be gathered and unified. It is on the basis of that strength that we shall be able to build a world order based upon freedom and justice. As President Truman has said: "We have worked with the free nations to lay the foundations of such a world order in the United Nations, and we must remain firm in our commitment to the United Nations. That is the only way out of an endless circle of force and retaliation, violence and war—which will carry the human race back to the dark ages if it is not stopped."

The strength which the free world is seeking to build is four-dimensional—military, political, economic and moral. These elements are mutually dependent and interacting, and all point to the objective to which the President referred. Taken together, they form the component parts of the "strategy of peace," which it is the function of the United Nations to develop and execute. This "strategy of peace" is confronted by a violent and persistent "strategy of aggression." The increasing perception of this fact during the past five years has resulted in a developing unity of purpose among the free nations which now finds its most striking expression in the actions which the United Nations has taken and is taking in Korea.

In times of crisis, it is good to look back upon the policies and actions to which we have committed ourselves, since our future welfare—and our very survival—will depend upon the wisdom and practicality of these policies. I think we may take satisfaction from the fact that our foreign policy has so consistently been based upon the view that the United Nations must be developed and strengthened. Prior to the aggression by the North Korean forces in June of last year, people were impatient because they felt that progress in developing the United Nations was too slow. There were few outward signs of a growing solidarity of peoples or of an increasing international co-operation. The patient and persistent work of the United Nations in the economic, social, and cultural fields remained largely unnoticed. Obstruction on the part of the Soviet Union, and its failure to participate in the constructive work of the United Nations, was so open and notorious as to obscure the quiet efforts of the free nations to work and build together. The aspects of the United Nations which made the headlines and drew the attention of most people were the Soviet tactics of veto, boycott, and walkout. These were the symbols of futility.

However, when the United Nations found itself face to face with an open and armed aggression against itself, it became clear in a matter of hours that the free world possessed in the United Nations a mechanism in being, by which collective judgment and power could be mobilized. I believe that the quick United Nations decision to condemn and repel the North Korean aggression gave a rude shock to Communist imperialism. The recent United

Nations action in branding as aggressors the Chinese Communists must have shattered any remaining illusion that the free world was incapable of uniting in a moral judgment. The Kremlin likes to imagine that masses of people are on its side and in opposition to the policies of their own governments. Korea has tested this wish-thought and found it wanting. Soviet support for aggression has even cured thousands of fellow travellers and reduced the world Communist movement to the hard core of the dyed-in-the-wool comrades.

Korea brought into focus all four elements of strengthening the free world which I have mentioned, but especially the element of moral strength. This moral power comes from the unity of the free world — both of governments and of peoples. The greatest source of this moral power is the concern and desire of large numbers of people. Before Korea there was a devoted minority of people who faced the world stage at Lake Success and paid attention to the debate going on there. There were enough watchers to make every government think twice about any policy before announcing it, to make sure it would stand the critical examination of the world forum. But the moral power was not great because the proportion of people paying attention was not large. The turning point in the United Nations may be dated June 25, 1950, because millions of people who had their backs to Lake Success began to turn around and pay attention. This is the kind of turning point which in itself creates strength in one of the four components — moral power. And you will notice that the moral power immediately started to act to increase physical strength. That is the characteristic about moral power which I think is impressive to the Soviets.

The Communist strategy of aggression is directed against the United Nations precisely because the principal target of aggression is the unity of the free world. Although the heroic actions of the United Nations forces in Korea naturally dramatize the military and security aspects of the matter, they should not obscure the underlying significance of all the related efforts which are playing a vital role in the gradual development of a world order based upon freedom and justice.

I have referred to the *political* element of strength in the free world. The development of standards of behavior and the promulgation of principles to further universal understanding of human rights and freedom are in themselves important steps in the strengthening of freedom. We must not undervalue the importance of expanding on an ever more universal basis respect for human rights. The Soviet system is especially vulnerable on this score because it dare not openly array itself against the freedoms, although in practice it repudiates them. For example, the Soviet Union did not dare to vote against the Declaration of Human Rights, despite its obstructive tactics throughout the patient and arduous efforts leading to the formation of the Declaration. The Soviet system did not dare openly to oppose the Declaration of Human Rights because it realizes that there are today hundreds of millions

of people who are awakening to the urge for liberty and freedom. Seventy million of them a little more than a year ago formed a new and independent state—with our help and that of the United Nations. The principles of the Declaration of Human Rights are incorporated into the constitution of that new state—Indonesia. And it is due to this same instinct for liberty that their new currency and stamps bear portraits of Lincoln, Jefferson, and Hamilton, rather than of Marx, Engels, or Lenin.

All of the work of the United Nations on the colonial question is also highly relevant here. The Trusteeship Council is charged with a degree of responsibility for the social and economic well-being, and the advance toward self-government, of some 19,000,000 people living in Trust Territories. Nearly 200,000,000 more people are living in areas administered by colonial powers, which recognize in the Charter that "the interests of the inhabitants of these territories are paramount." For many of these peoples, as in the case of Indonesia, the ideals of the American Revolution have living force today. We can justify their faith in us and win them as strong friends for the future by strengthening the work of the United Nations in this field. The drive of the dependent peoples towards independence is a major political fact. It can issue through peaceful evolution to a strengthening of the partnership of the free world, or through bloody revolution to a strengthening of Soviet imperialism. Our course would seem to be clear from the point of view of our national self-interest as well as our highest international aspirations.

I have referred also to the *economic* component of the strength of the free world. The work of the Economic and Social Council, of the World Health Organization and the other Specialized Agencies of the United Nations cannot be halted by the Soviet veto, nor is this work diminished in importance by Soviet non-participation. It is work which the like-minded peoples can do together, to their mutual advantage. Most good deeds and worth-while undertakings today are poisoned a little by the war of words; but some of this work is so universally appealing that even the Soviet Union has to agree to it, in principle at least.

When the President announced his Point Four Program, the Soviet propaganda machine denounced it as a further unfavelling of the Wall Street imperialist plot. When the General Assembly of the United Nations discussed the same program, it was adopted unanimously. It is difficult even for the Soviet Union to accuse a universal international body of "imperialism."

The Soviet agreement to a program of expanded technical assistance to underdeveloped areas may not amount to much when it comes time to put up cash, to exchange technicians, and techniques, and to go to work in a co-operative attack on starvation and disease. But we can be sure that the agreement of most of the other nations will amount to something. This program has kindled the imagination of the peoples of the world, simply because a steel plough will do what the loftiest statement of good intentions can hardly hope to do. It will be a pity if this concept should be reduced in the public

mind merely to a "technical assistance program" — a sort of technicians' paradise. Under this program, the world will get at least some of the many technicians it needs. Beyond that, the program was designed, and should be executed, so that it offers hope where there is now only despair. It should offer the promise of democracy where there is now only apathy or a sullen turning towards the betrayed Utopia of Soviet Communism.

It is true, of course, that the headlines regarding the U. N. are usually reserved for the overt aggression in Korea and the means adopted to repel it. As I have said, Korea dramatized the United Nations in action and it is natural that people should have primary concern for the problem which directly involves the life and death of young men gallantly carrying out the free world's mission there. Behind the man with the gun lies the story of patient and persistent efforts in the United Nations to stop the conflict in Korea by peaceful means. The political efforts currently in process at Lake Success are integrally related to the military efforts of the United Nations forces in Korea. Perhaps never before has the intimate relationship between political and military effort been so evident as it has since the outbreak of the Korean aggression.

AGGRESSION IN KOREA

I would like to say a few words about how the United States is striving in the United Nations to meet the problem presented by North Korean and Chinese Communist aggression in Korea. We are trying to meet this aggression in two separate and yet related ways, both of which, as we see it, proceed along parallel lines. The first way is by peaceful negotiation. So far, the Chinese Communists and the Soviet bloc in the United Nations have rejected the idea of negotiations on any terms acceptable to the United Nations. But we have not given up; we have not abandoned hope that a peaceful and honorable settlement can be achieved. We cannot and shall not give up hope that counsels of reason will yet prevail in Moscow and Peiping. We shall continue to attach a high priority to sincere efforts to find honorable and peaceful solutions.

The resolution introduced by the United States, and adopted by an overwhelming vote of the General Assembly, provides for the appointment by the General Assembly of a Good Offices Committee. This Committee is to utilize any suitable opportunity to use its good offices to carry out the policies of the United Nations to bring about cessation of hostilities in Korea and the achievement of United Nations objectives in Korea by peaceful means. The United States will give to this Committee its loyal and unflagging support. We shall never close the door to good faith negotiation — just as we have in the past given sincere support to the United Nations attempts at peaceful negotiation.

You will recall that the United Nations, with our unreserved support, already has devoted more than two months of intensive effort to find a peaceful and honorable settlement in Korea. The United Nations has made four separate and continuing attempts. On December 16, 1950, the United Nations

Cease-Fire group sought an opportunity to discuss with the Peiping regime arrangements for a cease-fire in Korea, in order to provide an opportunity for considering what further steps should be taken for a peaceful settlement in accordance with the purposes and principles of the United Nations. The United States Government, as the Unified Command, had on its part promptly met with the Cease-Fire Group to outline the basis for a satisfactory cease-fire arrangement. On December 21st, Chou-En-lai, on behalf of the Peiping regime, rebuffed the Cease-Fire Group, declaring that his regime considered null and void all major resolutions, especially those concerning Asia, which the United Nations might adopt without the participation and approval of the Chinese Communist regime. Chou-En-lai refused to allow his representative to remain at Lake Success and contemptuously referred to the Cease-Fire Committee as the "illegal three-man committee."

Meanwhile, on December 19, the United Nations Cease-Fire Group had despatched a second message to the Chinese Communist authorities. The Cease-Fire Group had indicated that once a cease-fire had been achieved, the Committee could meet with the Chinese to discuss peaceful settlement of existing issues in the Far East. Four days later, the President of the General Assembly received Peiping's reply to this second overture. The reply repeated Peiping's reference to the "illegal three-man committee" and echoed the same wild charges of "American aggression," which we have heard so often and so long from spokesmen of the Soviet bloc in the United Nations and elsewhere. The Peiping reply made the familiar claim that the several hundred thousand regular Chinese troops in Korea are only "volunteers." The reply also charged that the Proposals suggested by 12 Arab-Asian nations were only a trap engineered by United States intrigue.

The United Nations persisted in its efforts to find a peaceful settlement. On January 13, the General Assembly voted to transmit to Peiping the Statement of Principles outlined by the Cease-Fire Group for the establishment of a free and united Korea, and for a peaceful settlement of Far Eastern problems. Fifty nations voted in favor of this proposal, which did not in any way involve the surrender by the United States of any principle for which we had stood.

The Peiping regime replied promptly to this third effort, saying they would not agree to a cease-fire followed by negotiations on Far Eastern problems. The Chinese Communists demanded the right to continue their assault on the United Nations until the conclusion of negotiations. They insisted that before any talks were held, their regime be admitted to the United Nations as the official representative of China. They insisted that as a condition of negotiations on the question of Formosa, the United Nations must accept in advance the principle that the American fleet should be withdrawn from the Formosan Straits, thus bringing to an end the policy of neutralizing the island and limiting the area of the conflict in Korea. They told the United Nations that they would talk with representatives of only six particular coun-

tries, which they named. They announced that they would choose the place of negotiation and that the six countries must come to them.

Obviously this third reply was not acceptable to the United Nations. It was not the kind of a reply which promised a peaceful and honorable settlement of Far Eastern problems. The General Assembly thereupon adopted the resolution, to which I have referred, which among other things recognized that the Chinese Communist regime "has itself engaged in aggression in Korea."

It is this resolution, sponsored by the United States, and adopted by 44 affirmative votes, that the door is left open for continuing efforts to find a peaceful solution. The resolution also provides for the establishment of a Committee to consider additional measures which might be employed to meet the aggression, and to report to the General Assembly. This Committee is authorized to defer its report if the Good Offices Committee reports satisfactory progress in its efforts. It follows that the work of the Good Offices Committee and of the Committee to study measures which might be employed to meet the aggression in Korea is complementary and in no way contradictory. The commencement of the study of collective measures does not signal the defeat of patient efforts to find a peaceful solution. To these latter efforts we shall continue to assign a high priority of interest and support.

I have gone at some length into the history of efforts of the United Nations to find a peaceful solution because I think it symbolizes one of the most essential attributes of the United Nations. Resting upon sound moral unity, it is possible for the collective judgment of the free world to maintain a firmness necessary to meet aggression and at the same time and with utmost consistency, to continue to seek peaceful settlements. In this way, organized force is an instrument of peace. This would not be possible without an agreed objective and an organization dedicated to that objective.

I should like to conclude with reference to a problem which I think faces American education by reason of the Communist aggression upon the free world. The construction of the "defenses of peace" in the minds of men obviously involves the necessity to equip young people to live and grow in a changing UN world. Inasmuch as we are caught in a continuing struggle with Communist imperialism, it seems clear that the realities of the current international scene should be taught directly and frankly in our schools. We hope and believe that the struggle with international Communism can be resolved without a third world war. Nevertheless, the foundations of individual strength will, I think, be lacking unless our young people have been given the advantages of analysis and discussion of the factors involved in the Communist aggression against the free world. It seems to me this involves necessity to explain the basic causes which produce revolution and which lead people to abandon hope and to become prey to false totalitarian appeals. The development of intelligent and understanding citizens in the free world is one of the principle methods in building the strength of the free world itself.

Education for a Changing World

HOUSTON PETERSON

PRESIDENT Spencer, Ambassador Gross, Fellow Teachers, Ladies and Gentlemen: After such an impressive and thought-provoking address by Ambassador Gross, I wouldn't want to do anything to obscure it or divert your attention from it. And very seriously, if I thought I would in any sense blunt the edges of his talk by flippancy or by facetiousness at this late moment in the evening, I'd rather beg off. Frankly, I thought I was to precede him and follow the music. It's always very difficult to do either, but I was brought here, I fear, because I look like Robert Benchley, slightly; and am supposed to have some of his approach to the comic spirit. But this is not the time to be a follower of Benchley, exclusively, although heaven knows his death was a dreadful loss to the world because there was an underlying note of tragic understanding there. I say I wouldn't go on if I hadn't planned a little later on to make some remarks that I think supplement and support all that Mr. Gross has been saying.

This gorgeous room, by the way, reminds me of a similar hotel room in the famous Rice Hotel in Texas, not as famous now as the Shamrock, but still famous. I was addressing there a very distinguished group—everybody in Texas of wealth was there except Mr. McCarthy, (He was down working on the Shamrock that night.)—dressed-up people, ornate people, bejeweled people, who had never heard of me. The only reason I was there was that I am a collateral descendant of Sam Houston, and my lecture manager gets me scattered all through Texas as a result. I have to be the general for the first two minutes and, as you can see, very inadequately. But on this particular occasion, I was introduced quite smoothly by an easterner but was making no headway at all, it seems to me. I had been preceded, fortunately, by music—by only one singer—a Mrs. Daniel Boone—here Houston Peterson made an extraordinary historic evening. Mrs. Boone sung an aria from “La Traviata” and then “Carry Me Back to Ole’ Virginny.” Then I was introduced and proceeded for about ten minutes against this arctic surface of Texas (it gets cold down there—mentally as well as physically). Mrs. Boone was sitting down after her aria with some elderly people. As she looked a little lonely there and as I felt very much alone, I just stopped my remarks and said, “Mrs. Boone, where is Mr. Boone tonight?” Well, the elite of Texas could hear a chiffon handkerchief drop at that point, and I regretted that I had put the question, but then suddenly this lovely contralto voice said, “Why, he’s baby sitting.” Everything was all right after that.

I was speaking on American character and culture. I just stopped and said, “Well, why go on? That’s what’s happened to American character and culture. Daniel Boone, once the terror of the forest ends up baby sitting.”

Houston Peterson is Professor of Social Philosophy, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey.

I could tell you many stories about Texas, buses, airplanes, and trains. It's a big state. I'm a native Californian. Take a good look at me; you've probably never seen a native Californian. I was driven out by the Iowans thirty years ago. My parents were born there, and my grandparents got there before the Civil War. But my favorite little experience in Texas was in a Pullman train. My ambition is to do covers for the *New Yorker*—if I could only draw. That's my only handicap. But I was sitting there—you can use this, Mr. Gross, I think, in your international work—sitting there in the smoking room. Near me was a private in the United States Army—a youngster on his way to occupy Berlin. He wasn't quite sure where Berlin was. I wish you would send, Ambassador Gross, older boys to occupy Berlin; they say those Russians are very tough. This young fellow was with a charming young American-Mexican boy. I asked the young Mexican what he wanted to see in New York. He said, "Sir, I want to see that statue about liberty." I'll never forget that. On the other hand, his colleague was reading a book. I always carry a library around with me in America as I go on my lecture tours, but I never find anybody else reading a book and frankly, that depresses me. That portable type, ladies and gentlemen, came late into Western civilization—from China, perhaps—and I'm afraid it's on the way out unless you do a great deal to stop it. I'm very serious. In homes where there is radio, practically no books or magazines are read; and in homes where there is television, they soon won't be able to read, remember. It's a very serious matter. So I go around taking my own Gallup Poll, more dependable than Mr. Gallup's recently. I asked this would-be corporal what he was reading on the way to New York and Berlin, I said, "What are you reading, young man?" He said, "Oh, I can't pronounce the title." Well that was a bad start. So I said, "Well, let me see it." What was it? *Laramie Rides Alone*. I think one of your problems, ladies and gentlemen, is to tell them to leave Laramie alone and get on with some of these larger subjects the Ambassador was talking about.

Again I suspect I am here because your excellent secretary heard me make a preposterous little talk one day last summer in California. I have made three or four long ones without much success. (I was called on unexpectedly—I think the Governor was there—Governor Warren, as a matter of fact). They wanted to warm the audience up for my speech the next day, but it terrified me and I told them a parable you may be able to use. I spent the summer with my seven-year old nephew who lives in California. Because I didn't have very much teaching to do I found myself listening to the radio from time to time with my nephew, Dinky. You are not allowed to call him that, but I do. We started to call him that when he was young. He's only seven now—quite a literate young fellow. He got me hearing a radio show called "Sky King." I don't know if you are familiar with that. "Sky King" is a little more human, I believe, than "Super Man" and some of these other figures. But in this particular case, "Sky King" was on the track of some foreigner, by the obvious accent you could tell that. The scene was in a

bungalow or ranch house in the San Fernando Valley. The foreigner was being very urbane. The Sky King knew something was wrong. Apparently the Sky King always carries a hammer with him. This suspicious character had a small statuette of an Olympic runner. Now, why he should be carrying that around was not made clear in this brief program. That will be next week, of course. The Sky King took this statuette and broke it quickly, like that, and diamonds rolled out — obviously a smuggler. So the villain runs down, gets in his car, dashes down the San Fernando Valley — the Sky King after him. Of course he is captured and goes to San Quentin — that corresponds to Sing Sing. After it was all over, I turned to Dinky and said, "You understood that, Dinky?" He said, "Yes." And I said, "Do you understand what smuggling is?" He looked at me and said, "Yes, Uncle Peter, I think I do. Smuggling is a good deal like strangling, isn't it?" I was there in a position you people are in. You see, at college we feel they know the difference between smuggling and strangling. But it's a very humbling thing to have an experience like that. So I proceeded to give him a little talk on the nature of the protective tariff, that the diamond industry in the United States had to be protected, and I went on for some time — you see how lucid I am (after all, you've noticed that). And after it was all over, Dinky said, "Well, I don't see why they shouldn't be able to bring in diamonds for nothing." And to this day I'll go to my grave wondering whether I was not clear or he favors a low tariff or none at all. When I get confident or cocky in my teaching, I always try to remember the difference between smuggling and strangling. Of course, some people don't see any difference. Dinky was right, maybe.

Well, those are some of the parables and problems of a migratory worker. I teach a light schedule so that I can wander about the country a little bit and see what's going on. Most professors should stay on the campus, but I don't see why all of us should, especially a neurotic type. But a thing that has been disturbing me recently, ladies and gentlemen, is not the so-called defeatism or the despair some people have talked about — what General Eisenhower talked about the other evening — but a slightly different thing — an element of pity or of self-pity regarding some of our youths. I think it's a very serious problem if you pity an entire generation. Now don't say this isn't the case because I can give you example after example of this matter. I attended a commencement exercise not so long ago; as a matter of fact, the young graduate, who was giving the main address, spoke of what a bad age we are in. That was the entire theme — it's a bad age. It's a bad age, but we must be brave about it. But the worst thing, I thought, was four adults who gave four commencement addresses before I had a chance to give the main one. It took the edge off things, I confess. All agreed with this boy. Oh yes, it's a bad age — you are miserable folk, and so forth. I don't know anything more unfortunate than to talk that way, especially since I think it isn't true. It certainly isn't true and it is certainly a misleading and unnerving thing for youth to be told that, especially by adults.

Edmund Burke once said, "You can't indict a nation — an entire nation." To paraphrase him, You can't indict an entire period. I think it's historically foolish to talk about good and bad ages, especially if you don't make your invidious comparison very carefully.

The great Whitehead, I guess the greatest philosopher of the twentieth century, remarked in 1925 in somewhat of an involved sentence (but I think it's clear), "Nothing does more harm in unnerving men for their duties in the present" (and Dr. Whitehead didn't make extravagant remarks just for fun) — I repeat, "Nothing does more harm in unnerving men for their duties in the present than the attention devoted to points of excellence in the past as compared with the average failure of the present day." What you do, in short, to make Whitehead a little simpler, is to pick out the mounted peaks of the past and then select the gutters and jungles of your own period and make a brutal or unfair comparison. Now to draw this out a little, let me just take four or five periods in the past. I say this is all dangerous talk, for you can't get back to that previous century. It's a waste of time in the first place, but it's more than that. One of the favorite periods or centuries we hear a great deal about is the fifth-century Greece. Of course, when people talk about fifth-century Greece, they mean a few people in Athens — if they only knew what they were talking about. In the earlier part of the century you had the Persian Wars in which the Greek city-states turned back the Persians. That was marvelous and there was a period of rejoicing over Greece.

That merged with the Age of Pericles; but you will recall that, a year or two before Pericles died, the Peloponnesian Wars began, which General Marshall has compared with our present situation, the imperial democracy or the democratic imperialism of Athens over against the Nazi-like totalitarianism of the Spartans. But, my friends, that went on for nearly thirty years. And early in it, a plague swept through Athens and overcrowded little cities. Pericles was carried away — a ruthless warrior came to the front. An so it went on year after year. What about 404 with Sparta winning and Socrates executed in 399. Now look over it in that way, and I don't know whether that is such a dream-like century to get back to when you think of what the Athenians did to the Island of Melos — killed all of the men and sold the women and children into slavery. Those classic people, you know, were not so classic. They didn't know they were classic, by the way. We discovered that! They could do everything but govern themselves! And this idea of telling kids that the Greeks went around in white sheets with perfect moderation! Why did they talk about moderation so much? Because it's the one thing they didn't possess. That's not because they realized and epitomized those things so well. So, the next time you idealize that period or make it idyllic and make people rather ashamed, think of the Peloponnesian Wars.

Come down to another favorite century — the second century A. D. And if you will bear with me, I want to read a very famous paragraph from the great historian Gibbon. It's from the third chapter of the *Decline and Fall*. "If

a man were called to fix the period in the history of the world during which the condition of the human race was most happy and prosperous, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Domitian to the accession of Commodus." That, by the way, is from about 96 to 180 — just about a century. The vast extent of the Roman empire was governed by absolute power under the guidance of virtue and wisdom — absolute power under guidance — get the undertone of this. The armies were restrained by the firm but gentle hand of four successive emperors whose characters and authority commanded involuntary respect. The forms of the civil administration were carefully preserved by Nerva, Hadrian, Antonius, and Fabius, who delighted in the image of liberty. He doesn't say liberty. He's a very wily man, Mr. Gibbon . . . who delighted in the image of liberty. They were pleased with themselves as the administrators of the law.

Such princes deserve the honor of restoring the republic, had the Romans of their day been capable of enjoying a rational freedom. But, of course, the emperors knew that the masses were incapable of freedom; so they didn't give it to them. Very shrewd! The laborers of these monarchs were overpaid by the immense reward which inseparably weighted on their success, by the honest pride of virtue, and by the exquisite delight of beholding the general happiness of which they were the authors. A just but melancholy reflection embittered, however, the noblest of human enjoyment.

Now watch this sentence. This comes right in the midst of a paragraph. "Over all this equanimity, this classic harmony and general satisfaction — a just but melancholy reflection embittered, however, the noblest of human enjoyment." What do you suppose that was? They must often have recollected the instability of happiness which depended on the character of a single man. The fatal moment was, perhaps, approaching when a sensuous youth or some jealous tyrant would abuse, to the destruction, that absolute power which they had exerted for the benefit of the people. And what was the truth of the matter? The son of the fifth emperor, Marcus Aurelius, is always pictured to us as the noblest, the wisest, as the most philosophical ruler of all times; yet he was the most nasty, brutal, perverted, wicked son in history. Now why that should have occurred, of course, is a perfect mystery. But Commodus followed Marcus Aurelius. So here is idealizing that period and then it reaches its climax in the great emperor whom philosophers exalt so much, the author of meditations, and then comes Commodus who, I suppose, was as bad or worse than Nero. Now that's a curious ending to this period.

Turn to the thirteenth century, the period of great unity that Henry Adams spoke so highly of where you had religious unity, political unity, economic unity to a degree, and so on — the period of St. Thomas Aquinas and Dante — but it disintegrated rather briskly in the fourteenth century, and then what happened, 1348, 1350. Probably unless we match it, the worst disaster (I talk only of Western civilization), of Western history, where the continuity of history — historians tell me — was almost broken. The Black Death started

somewhere in the Near East — around Constantinople — and then swept across Europe, right steadily across — $1/5$, $2/5$, $3/5$, some suggest $4/5$ of the entire population of Europe was wiped off at that time. Making it still more dreadful, a scapegoat had to be found — and then the poor Jews suffered some of the worst disasters, probably, because they were the visible scapegoat. So whatever is true of the thirteenth century is what happened in the middle of the next century. We know of the long period of the French Revolution, extending through 1850, and the Napoleonic regime. What did Wordsworth say later: "Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive, but to be young was very heavenly." He turned against much of that later on.

I know others who want to get back to the Victorian Age. I don't know how they are going to manage it without a kind of statistical miracle, but covering the entire human race; that was a period of calm — we say ah, yes, no great international war between 1850 and 1914 — a period of surface complacency, but it did give birth to a century which has been a troubled one. The Victorian period did rob the world of its natural resources, exploited it, plundered it; and we generated a vast reservoir of ill will. That's part of the Asian story, of course, through the domination of so-called colored peoples about the world. I'm not trying to debunk, I hope in a cheap and vulgar sense, vast periods of human history, but what I am trying to minimize and denounce, really, are the huge invidious comparisons — always telling people that if you had only been born earlier you would have been all right.

Let's not call this period a good one or a bad one. Call it a tremendous one. Call it an overwhelming one. Use one Hollywood expression correctly for the first time and call it super-colossal. Take it away from Mr. DeMille and give it to the ambassadors. I have done that already Mr. Gross, it's yours from now on. And closely related to this very same point, ladies and gentlemen, comparing our age with the past and always, you might say, to our minimization, we also make these invidious and, I think, sterile comparisons between our leaders or people in key positions or people in responsible positions and the past. I have never seen this gentleman before, and it's just possible we may never meet again, but at the risk of flattery I'll set him up in any period, he'd hold his own and add luster, I think, to any century or period. Why do we have to pick out an ambassador or foreign representative — but we do. And now I want to give you another very striking reference.

I'm a bookman and I like to tie down and anchor my remarks if I can with the proper reference. You remember that Demosthenes, like Mr. Churchill, for ten years, foresaw what was happening in Greece. He knew that these Nazis — no, they weren't as bad as the modern Nazis — were gathering up there. And he pleaded with the Greek states to form some kind of united nations — the parallel is perfect. But it was too little and too late, and Philip came down and took over the Greek cities, really, and from then on Greece as a growing power is pretty well wiped out. Then years later somebody wanted to offer a golden crown to Demosthenes, after they had lost the war.

The parallel would be exactly this: That is, if the United Nations or the Allies had lost to the Nazis and then somebody had wanted to give Mr. Churchill a crown for fighting it out so wonderfully and somebody said, "No, you lost, didn't you? You were wrong." But Churchill would have said, "I would do it over again because there's uncertainty in these matters." And so Demosthenes said that. And toward the end of the greatest oration in history, probably Demosthenes on the Crown, he turned to his critic and bitterest foe, and said, "You have recalled, again and again, the gallant men of old, and you do well to do so. Yet is it not just, man of Athens, to take advantage of the good feeling which you may be relied upon to entertain towards the dead in order to examine me before you their standard, and compare me, who am still living and amongst you, with them." Who in all the world does not know that against the living there is always more or less of secret jealousy, while none, not even their enemies, hate the dead any more. I realize, my friends, that we need standards and models, we need personal and historical inspirations—but set up some flexible standards and models, don't always compare the living sequel so closely with the dead you only see in silhouette. Compare the living with the living—their contemporaries—as men do in every other matter. Oh, we make these comparisons. Is DiMaggio as good as Ty Cobb? I'm a tennis player. Is Budge as good as Tilden? Is this person as good as McLaughlin. We sit around, we old men, making those comparisons; but those are not the vital and vivid ones. So I suggest to you, and I started to pay you a tribute at the beginning. I understand you represent 92 per cent of the secondary schools of the country. You and the people you represent are the most powerful single group in the United States. You see, we teachers talk too much about our social position and too much about salaries and too much about supervisors (and cause some great trouble), but not about power. Power is the only word our age understands. Power! And you've got it. But it's a dreadful and a many-sided power. It's the knife with two edges. I take the view, frankly, that we college teachers are not very important. I take the view, furthermore, that grammar-school teachers cannot mold, for better or for worse, the children fatally. They can't completely ruin them before you get them. You get them 12, 13, 14, and then on to 17, 18, 19. We cannot ruin your work if it is good, ladies and gentlemen. We in college cannot ruin your work if it is good, if you have given them enough momentum. But I don't believe we can undo it if your work has been bad or inadequate. No, let me say as an outsider who has never taught any unmolded youngsters in his life, that you are in this crucial, this tragically crucial, position. You see, I am not talking about curriculum or visual aids, methods, or textbooks; but I'm interested in what Whitehead, the seventeenth century philosopher, used to call the climate of opinion. And I think, sir, that the climate of opinion, that atmosphere that surrounds the schools and that pervades an entire school system, in many ways is more important than any single curriculum or set of devices.

Third General Session

Sunday, February 11, 3:00 P. M., Century Room

PRESIDING: *Joseph C. McLain*, Principal, Mamaroneck Senior High School, Mamaroneck, New York; Member, Executive Committee, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Music: Choir, Mamaroneck Senior High School, Mamaroneck, New York; F. Colwell Conklin, Director.

Scripture Reading and Prayer: *Dr. Russell F. Auman*, Pastor, St. Peter's Lutheran Church of Manhattan, New York, New York.

Prayer:

ETERNAL God our Father, we who have been called to be teachers, turn to Thee the Great Teacher of men, that we may worship Thee; that we may sit at Thy feet for a while and learn of Thee, whom to know is life. Forgive us for presuming to bear the honored name of teacher, the name Thou Thyself didst carry while here on earth. Yet to this Thou hast called us and to this we have dedicated our lives. Keep us humble in the presence of so high and great a calling. Forgive us when we follow the easy way of teaching books, or systems of thought, or well wrought out theories, when "no printed word nor spoken plea can teach young hearts what men should be, not all the books on all the shelves; but what the teachers are themselves. For education is making men."

O God, since we their guide for life must be, O let all youth and children see "the teacher leaning hard on Thee."

In this day when there is so much that confuses and bewilders, and when it is so difficult to understand and be understood, grant to each of us the priceless boon of being used of Thee in the moulding of even but one life into a perfect poem, into some haunting melody, against the day when the song on our lips shall have ended. Give us the courage and the faith to stand for the true and the good, though we must stand for it alone. And should the time come when all others shall have forsaken the field, help us to know that we are not alone, for Thou art by our side. And Thou wilt then press us close to Thy breast, for Thou too, wert lonely and forsaken in Thy battle for the right.

Let our hearts be sustaining bulwarks, and our goodwill the purest gold. Let this be our supreme passion, to teach and love with flaming fervor all our days, till we enter at last into the throbbing heart of Thy Eternal Love.

We praise Thee for the blessing of music; for those who have dreamed it and those who reproduce it. Bless both with Thy divine inspiration. Speak to our hearts and lives through him who brings us the spoken message of this hour. We thank Thee that "the lore of Christ and his apostles twelve" he indeed teaches. But, above all, we thank thee that he first follows it himself. May the inspiration of this Vesper Fellowship make us all better men and more effective servants. In the Name of Christ. Amen.

Address: Dr. Ralph W. Sockman, Minister, Christ Methodist Church, New York, New York.

IT is with a sense of high privilege that I come to speak to this very potent group of people. I must be frank and say it would be with more pleasure if I had not already preached two different sermons this morning and had to give another one at 5 o'clock this afternoon. So I am resting on you at this moment, and I hope you will be patient.

The Chinese have an ancient proverb that there are five points to the compass: north, east, south, west, and, fifth, the point where you are. The Chinese say that is the most important of the five; for unless you know where you are, it does not do you quite enough good to know your direction. Where we are makes a certain difference in what is the right course to take. That's true geographically; that's also true socially and morally. Where we are makes a certain difference in what is the right thing to do. Let me use a homely illustration: Suppose I went to a gymnasium tomorrow where the boys were playing basketball, and I said to one of those players, "Why, dear fellow, you look sick. You ought to be in bed." That might be an act of kindness. It might save that young man from serious illness. But suppose I went this afternoon to the home of a friend who was recovering from a long illness. Sitting up for the first time after weeks in bed and I said to him, "My dear fellow, you look sick. You ought to be in bed." Precisely the same words, and in one case they would be kind in the other, they would be cruel.

Now with that simple principle applied to a little larger sphere, back in 1932 I was traveling with a company of American students in Europe. We came one night to the Austrian city of Innsbruck. It was at the time when Austrian currency had depreciated to almost nothing. You could buy a whole sheet of it for a few American cents. That night in a public restaurant one of our American students, in a spirit of quite innocent fun, took one of those high-denomination of Austrian currencies, rolled it into a taper, and from the candle on the table lighted his pipe. Quite a harmless thing if done in New York or Philadelphia. But it almost started a riot that night in Innsbruck. Why? It was a reflection on the national pride of the Austrians. I repeat, therefore, that what is the right thing to do depends somewhat on where you are.

And now, since Professor Einstein's time, we are told that where we are, if you want to locate that, we must take into account the element of time. About all I know about the Einstein theory—but since I'm speaking to educators I ought to make reference to it just to show my intellectuality, of course the principle is very simple—it is just based on this fact: "Everything is in motion." Right now we are on a planet, moving at the rate of about 1,000 miles an hour eastward. So in the four or five minutes I have been speaking we've all moved some 70 or 80 miles farther east. Some of you may be farther away

than that from what I'm saying, but we're all moving. Everything is in motion; so, says Einstein. If I want to locate myself, then I must take into account the element of time. Where I am makes a difference on this point of the compass. Where I am makes a difference in what is the right thing to do. That's very clear in the Bible. Again and again Jesus said, "Ye have heard it said by them of old time, but I say unto you." New day, new duty, new insight — so in the teaching for a changing age we must first of all locate the fifth point of the compass. Help these confused youth and ourselves to find out where we are. We are teaching in the strongest nation in the world, in the middle of the bloodiest century of all history.

And now it is so dark that some there are who think it is the end of the age. I'm not one of those who feel that the two world wars and the threat of another mean the end of things. Nor do I feel that global war is inevitable. I believe that there is a road ahead, and I'm going to suggest in the brief word that I have this afternoon two or three things for this road ahead which we are to enter, having found our fifth point of the compass. The first thing I think we need to stress in our education, both in your field and in mine, is the road map. It is, as was said by one of the students of the high school, it is a confused time. I find so many young people somewhat like one who came to me here in the city — about the middle of the 1930's. He said, "I have never lived through what you would call normal times." He said, "The earliest memories I can recall are those of cutting out war pictures from the paper when I was a boy — World War I. I went to school in the booming hectic 1920's, was graduated from Harvard in 1929 at what seemed to be the peak of prosperity. I was almost immediately catapulted into a depression, there in the middle of the 1930's. I have never lived through what you call normal times. What I need is something to believe in, something to hold to." And now the last fifteen years we've had other wars, and this awful cycle that seems to be so repetitive has left many a youth still more bewildered. We must, first of all, give them some kind of a road map, some kind of a philosophy of life that shows them the goals, the directions.

It was Chesterton, wasn't it, who said that, "It is important for a landlady to know her boarders' financial standing; but it's more important for a landlady to know her boarders' philosophy of life." But even before that, he had said, "It's important for a general in a campaign to know his enemy's numbers and equipment, but it's more important for a general in a campaign to know his enemy's philosophy of life. For, he said, "the most practical as well as the most basic question is this: What is my philosophy of life? What is my relation to the cosmos? Who am I? Where am I going?"

Now when I said a moment ago that I did not believe a global war was inevitable, it's because I believe we are so much more potential than any other nation in the world — if we live up to our philosophy of life. For the greatest difference between the Soviet Union and the United States isn't in our improved industrial technique. I was there four years ago; I saw something

of it. I think Russia's system is so failing to work in her own country that she's frightened us far more than we need to be frightened. But that isn't my ground of faith. The real ground is this: We have a different road map; we have a different philosophy of life. Our philosophy has come down, not from a Munich beer hall of the Nazis or not from a Communist propaganda with its brash economic plan beginning in 1917. It comes down from the great Hebrew Christian tradition established by our founding fathers. It makes life worth more along the Mississippi and the Hudson. It does what that song said it does—it opens a gate beside the golden door. It's so important these days to teach our young people the great traditions that have made America. I want to say here in passing that I am very much indebted to many in this room. I am indebted to Dr. Elicker, for last summer when we sought to take the poll for the election to the Hall of Fame—since President Angell's death, I have been the director of the Hall of Fame—we asked his aid to send some ballots to the National Honor Society chapters of your high schools. And the heartening thing was the same viewpoint expressed. I was worried for just a few months before that—just a year ago, in fact—one of the great magazine publishers of this country came to me with a series of fifty people who he thought were the immortals of the twentieth century so far—the first half. He asked me to say something about those fifty people. In the list was Al Capone. I said, "I can't sign my name to a list with Al Capone's name in it, even though I keep myself neutral." "Well," he said, "Al Capone's name belongs in that immortal list. He'll be talked about." Nero wasn't good, but he was talked about. The Bourgeois weren't good, but they were talked about. That was his idea of fame. If our youth were to get that idea, that fame is simply what you call immediate success, it would be too bad. But thank God, they have just as sane a view as we did, as the older group that did the electing. The only two that got through their list were Alexander Graham Bell and Woodrow Wilson. Yes, if ever there was a time in history, when the philosophy that has made America needs to be taught, sanely, not Pharisaically, recognizing we haven't given all our minorities their rights and all that; nevertheless, we've at least come this far that we recognize our limitations and still seek those goals that have made life worth living. We need the road map.

Secondly, we need to bring out the lights for this road. For these young people I find, and no doubt you speak with much more authority, are very much discouraged. I've had youth express the fact—I've heard it given at commencements—that they thought they had just a few years, and then another war—that is was hopeless,—why plan? We must give light for this dark day. When I say that, I'm reminded of what one of the great preachers of this city, once said. He said he, as a young student, was preaching once in Scotland. It was a rainy Sunday, a small town, and, when it came time for him to leave his host's house to go to the train, his host gave him a lantern. About all you get for preaching in Scotland, but he got a lantern. He said

the lantern helped him to pick his way among the puddles along the slippery road. When he came to a turn in the road, he could see the station light, and that gave him added direction. We need both lights; we need the station light to show us the goal, this philosophy of life I've been talking about. We need also the lantern of faith to help us take the next step, the next step, and the next step. Thomas Carlyle was pretty right, wasn't he, when he said, "If you do your duty next and the duty next to that, it's amazing how light begins to break on the ultimate duty."

It makes me think of an experience that I myself have had. I've always had to confess that whenever I get a new book I always look at the last pages first. I don't know why I do, but I almost always do. That wasn't so bad until it came time in high school to take up the study of geometry. I got a textbook on geometry and I opened it from the rear, and my eye fell on one of the most forbidding-looking objects that I have ever seen. I think it was called a parallelepiped, or something like that. It had more diagrammatic lines and angles and figures than I had ever seen assembled on one page before. I said to myself, if that's geometry, it just isn't for me. I would have quit geometry at that moment, but, when my teacher got hold of me, he began at the first of the book with the axioms: "A straight line is the shortest distance between two points." That's the only one I can ever remember; so I've always had to stop there. But we began with the axioms and gradually worked our way up to that parallelepiped. Now there's a sound though rather homely philosophy back of that. One reason — not the only reason, but one reason we're in such despair about our days, we're trying so hard to peep at the last pages before we learn to practice the axioms that lead up to them. That is, we're trying to see the perfect solution of these great problems like world peace and industrial justice and racial brotherhood. There is no perfect solution. We have to work with imperfect instruments, or we're paralyzed by perfectionism. But what we must do, in your field and mine, is to get people to do that duty that they can see and that duty next to that. In other words, the plain old-fashioned moral teaching of the duties they can see will help to keep them going until the light begins to break on these ultimate problems.

I was a boy in Ohio and in my boyhood days there was a great preacher in Columbus. He was always holding before his people those great ideals of world peace, racial understanding; but he couldn't always see his way through. So he once wrote these lines: "I know that right is right, that it is not good to lie, that love is better than spite, and a neighbor than a spy. In the darkest night of the year, when the stars are all gone out, that courage is better than fear and faith is truer than doubt." Those are axioms. You can practice those tomorrow in Mamaroneck in New York and not only in Ohio. And here's my point: If we take the lantern of faith and do the duty next and the duty next, we'll come to the turning of the corner where the long directive lights are visible. We must get out our road map, get out our lights.

Thirdly, we must look, it seems to me, to the width of the road. You can go down here in old New York, Greenwich Village, and see those little meandering streets—rather interesting—narrow little lanes. They were quite all right when New York was a little village at the tip of Manhattan. But those streets, or even these up here, wouldn't hold the traffic that now runs into New York. We have these great highways that go out past Mamaroneck and up through Westchester. It takes a broader highway to handle the traffic of today than yesterday. It will take still broader tomorrow and that's true socially also.

Oh, I often think what a thrilling thing it must be to teach now—geography, history, the social sciences—with imagination; for I'm inclined to think imagination is more needed now even than information. Information will not make a brotherly world. Cold facts seem to make cold wars. You don't get people brotherly just by getting them close together. We've done that with our travel. If that were possible, then the New York subway would be the most brotherly place in the world. It isn't. The closer we get together, the more conscious we are of our differences. What we've got to have now is a kind of, shall I put it, a kind of Christianized, sensitized—I'd better put it more accurate—a kind of Christ-like (Christianity hasn't always gotten this, but Christ had it) a Christ-like imagination that can put itself into the places of people of different race and color and culture and creed—to teach with the imagination—to help them to see the human values back of those charts—those maps.

I sometimes think that women today have more imagination than men. By and large, I would rather speak (and I imagine Dr. Auman would too) on a social question to a women's club than to a service club. I think the women, through their missionary societies and women's clubs are doing more consistent study than the men of America right now on the social and international questions. Of course, I sometimes think women have more imagination than men. I heard of a couple who were celebrating their thirty-fifth wedding anniversary. The wife said to the husband: "It's been good to be together all these years, but of course it can't go on forever." He said, "Oh I know that but let's not talk about it today. This is our anniversary—let's be happy." She said, "Well, it's been lovely, but of course one of us will have to die sometime." "Oh," he said, "I know that, but let's not talk about it today. Let's just have a good time." "Well," she said, "I just thought this—that if one of us had to die, I'd like to go to Southern California to live." And she probably would, too. But it's that kind of imagination, brought down to serious realms, that I think we need.

Let me illustrate with just a figure. Suppose you drew a curtain across this room. I couldn't see the people standing back there or in those back rows. One way I could—if there were a mirror in the ceiling, I could look up into that mirror and that would enable me to look down in your faces. That's kind of a parable. The world is curtained off, but when he look up to God,

the Father of all men, in our churches on Sunday and our synagogues on Saturday, and pray sincerely, it's like looking up into a mirror that enables us to look down into the faces of people of different culture and race and place.

I'm frank to say that I think religion is the greatest hope of world understanding we have, and I say it fully conscious that it's been so often divisive. Nevertheless, because it brings us into the atmosphere of Him who is the Head of the whole family of God, I think it's our hope in giving us the wide road, the road map, the lights—and lastly, just this word: We need the power to keep going. I don't believe a global war is inevitable or immediate. I think it's a long pull, however, before we come out into calm seas. For that reason, education is the key approach. No quick solutions of economics are half so important as the education we are giving. We've got to give these young the faith which will furnish the power to keep going. It's one thing to say to the youth you know—have faith, whistle in the dark—that's not enough. What we must give them is to have *a* faith—a reason for what they believe; and the faith that gives me more confidence than almost anything else is the increasing interest now in higher education at least, for religious study. You go to Yale and Princeton, Columbia up here—the number of courses now being given in the field of religion is increasing so rapidly. I know your problems in public schools, but, my friends, it does seem to me that if religion with its great moral values made America, we just can't safeguard America's future if we treat religion as something that is so taboo that a school child musn't touch it. We've got to find some way of getting these moral values into education without sectarian suspicion and narrowness.

I can state my faith in one sentence this afternoon. It was James Russell Lowell who gave it the first time. It's this: "I take great comfort in God because I do not believe God would have allowed man to get at the matchbox of this universe if He had not known that the framework of it is fireproof." That's my faith. We've had wars. They seem to burn everything up, but they don't. Lowell wasn't thinking of atomic fission when he said that. He was thinking about those ultimate values which don't burn up. Beauty, truth, goodness—you can't burn them up. Wars come and we bomb cities. I've seen Florence since the war and it's tragic, but the fine arts go on—I venture to say in your schools with a new intensity and fervor, they never had before. Beauty goes on. War has propaganda that twists truth, but when wars are over our campuses are crowded as never before with students, pursuing truth goes on. War crucifies about everything that God and Christ stand for, but righteousness had its crucifixion thirty centuries ago but it had a resurrection. It will have it again. That's the faith we've got to give our youth—that the ultimate values do go on, and with that we'll have the power to keep going.

And we've got to do it, my friends, with a sense of mission. I've often told this; maybe some of you have heard me tell it. A fine young Congregational minister during the war was on a mission to Sweden for the World

Council of Churches. His plane was shot down over the North Sea by the Nazis. I met his father here in New York afterwards — Dr. Hume — and I expressed my sympathies, and he said, "Well, at least we know now what my son's last words were." He said, "When my son was on that flight to Sweden, a Swedish clergyman was coming from Sweden to America by way of England; and when he got off the plane at the English airport, he said to my son, "Mr. Hume, you'd better not take that plane. The Nazis are laying for it." Mr. Hume straightened up and said, "But I must take it. I'm on a mission." We can have the same sense of mission now — you, as educators, we in the pulpit — as we thought we had six years ago, I think we'll come through on this road ahead.

Benediction: Dr. Russell F. Auman, Pastor, St. Peter's Lutheran Church of Manhattan, New York, New York.

Reception

Sunday, February 11, 4:15-5:15 P. M., Ballroom

CHAIRMAN: *Dorothy Bonawit*, Principal, Tottenville High School, Staten Island, New York.

More than 1500 persons attended the reception given by the following organizations as hosts: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Connecticut Association of Secondary-School Principals, High-School Principals Association of New York City, Junior High-School Principals Association of New York City, New Jersey Secondary-School Principals Association, New York State Association of Secondary-School Principals, and the Vocational High-School Principals Association of New York City.

Back Issues of THE BULLETIN

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National Association of Secondary-School Principals

1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.,

Washington 6, D. C.

Fourth General Session

Sunday, February 11, 8:00 P. M., Ballroom

PRESIDING: *W. E. Buckey*, Principal, Fairmont Senior High School, Fairmont, West Virginia; Past President and Member, Executive Committee, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

The first part of this "Evening of Music" was presented by the Choirs of Westchester County High Schools, New York. The program included:

New Rochelle High School, New Rochelle, New York; *C. J. Brodhead*, Conductor; *Willis Thomson*, Principal.

Rise Up, O Men of God!	<i>Russel Miles</i>
An Abraham Lincoln Song	<i>Walter Damrosch</i>
You'll Never Walk Alone—from "Carousel"	<i>Richard Rogers</i>
Give Me Your Tired, Your Poor—from "Miss Liberty"	<i>Berlin-Ringwald</i>

Ardasley High School, Ardsley, New York; *Mitchell C. Vincent*, Conductor; *Arthur W. Silliman*, Principal.

Sound Sleep	<i>Vaughn Williams</i>
The Old Woman and the Pedlar (English Air)	<i>Arr. Davis</i>
Waters Ripple and Flow	<i>Deems Taylor</i>
The Sleigh	<i>Richard Kountz</i>

Port Chester High School, Port Chester, New York; *Clement A. Barton*, Conductor; *L. H. Knapp*, Principal

Let Thy Holy Presence	<i>Tschesnokoff</i>
Soon Ah Will Be Done	<i>William Dawson</i>
God of Our Fathers	<i>Arr. Gearhart</i>

Combined Choirs of New Rochelle, Ardsley, and Port Chester High Schools, Westchester County, New York.

Battle Hymn of the Republic	<i>Arr. Ringwald</i>
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Following this, the Westchester All-County Orchestra presented a program of instrumental music. This was sponsored by the Westchester Instrumental Music Educators' Association: *Wilbur D. Lockwood, Jr.*, Pleasantville, New York, President; and *Paul Van Bodegraven*, School of Education, New York University, New York, New York, Conductor of Orchestra.

Following is the program:

French Military March	<i>Saint-Saens</i>
Calif of Bagdad Overture	<i>Boieldieu</i>
Czech Rhapsody	<i>Weinberger</i>
Norse Legend	<i>Bridge</i>
El Relicario	<i>Padilla</i>

Fifth General Session

Monday, February 12, 9:30 A. M., Ballroom

PRESIDING: *Joseph B. Chaplin*, Principal, Bangor Senior High School, Bangor, Maine; First Vice President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

The Invocation was pronounced by *Dean Hubert S. Wood*, Cathedral of the Incarnation, Garden City, New York. Music was furnished by the Bay Shore High School Choir, Bay Shore, New York, under the direction of *Florence Specht*.

Problems of Manpower, Youth, and the Emergency

MAJOR GENERAL LEWIS B. HERSHEY

Mr. Chairman and Vice President, Mr. President, Past Presidents, Future Presidents:

IF I have missed anyone, ladies and gentlemen, in a politically-minded organization I do not overlook the fact that all of you are potential candidates for office. I want to assure you that it is a real privilege to have the opportunity to stand in front of a group of people that probably hold more influence on the America that we hope will be than any similar numbers of this size that I could find. If I were a person to be overcome with the thought of responsibility, I certainly would be unable to speak — which might be a very good thing — this morning, as I look at you and think to what extent you hold the responsibility and the duty of controlling what America is to be. I am also more than happy to have an opportunity to appear on the program this morning with one of the people that I consider to be an outstanding American. There is a second reason why there is some satisfaction in that because he has some of his future in front of him, which is not a condition shared by a great many of us — most of us have our future mostly in the past. But he is young enough, without being liable for service, to have a chance to give a great deal to this nation as he has been ever since I have known him. I don't happen to have too many things in common with him except being American, and that's about all that counts, anyway. I think he's a great guy. I'm talking about Walter Reuther. You're going to hear him next, if I don't use up all of his time — which I certainly shall not.

Now I come up here with some feelings as I look at this crowd. In the first place, I want you to know that I am not working today. I am not here officially. I have no idea of perpetrating a mass induction on this group. But before you get too far on that one, I have no intentions of getting mass de-

Major General Lewis B. Hershey is Director of Selective Service, National Headquarters, Washington, D. C.

ferment either. I have no intentions of telling you what's going to happen in this country, because I don't know. Now having gotten those three things out of the way, I want to say one thing on a very optimistic note. I do happen to be blind in one eye, and I'm somewhat nearsighted in the other. But as near as I can see, as I stand up here, I am an optimist. Because bad as I think the United States happens to be at the present time, I see very few people that in my business I could use. So that just shows that the country isn't as hard up as some of you people thought perhaps it was.

I have a subject this morning and I'm going to vary the thing. Normally I never mention my subject; I never say very much about it. As a matter of fact, I have only one speech — I've been giving it for several years — I give it in different order at different times. And when I talk before scientific people, such as you are, I start in the middle and go in each direction simultaneously. In that way I know nothing about what I'm saying — neither do you, but you live in a scientific age where a lack of knowledge indicated a profundity and therefore you think I am profound because you don't know what I'm talking about. And I don't either.

But be that as it may, my subject, which I read in the book here and am quite sure it is accurate, because anything which has been written in long-hand and then typed, and probably mimeographed, and finally printed is authentic. It doesn't make any difference what it started from, just as long as it's gotten into print. So my subject this morning is "Manpower, Youth, and the Emergency." Well, I ought to have room enough to spend half an hour on that one all right. What is the manpower problem? Well, it depends upon where you approach it. Coming up from the side that I'm coming from, the manpower problem is quite simple. It's an effort to try to find enough individuals in this country who are acceptable and usable to insure the survival of this country, not only as so much land, houses, and what-not, but also as a community of individuals who believe and must continue to believe that they are engaged in conducting the affairs of a nation that's unusual, not only in the present but in the annals of time. Now that's what I mean by survival. I'm not thinking of just somebody living here after perhaps a series of things had happened.

Now I am not Atlas. I am not carrying the responsibilities of the world or of the United States or of the manpower problem on my shoulders. I do get mixed up in the lives of a great many millions of people. I needn't tell you that I am not Santa Claus. I've never been cast in that role very much. When there was anything to give, somebody else went, and when there was something to be taken, then's when I came into the picture, sometimes by frightening people to do something voluntarily and sometimes by leading them by more direct and effective means, I hope.

So the manpower problem sometimes resolves itself into the \$64 question of how do you raise an armed force and not take anybody? Well, that has some complications that I don't know as I could fully discuss this morning.

But we have also a problem always in building an armed force of trying to see that we disturb our economy and the necessary things we must have to maintain that force the least that we possibly can, consistent with our job. Unfortunately, most of the time people would like to have us do it without disturbing anything. The old *status quo* from what little I remember of my academic years, I believe that's right—it meant something to me and I think it still does—but anyway, everyone is interested in trying to do something a great deal different without changing anything we're now doing. I know that I didn't like to have the curriculum changed when they were trying to put in something either I didn't have a teacher to teach, and when I was teaching in those old days, the principal took most of the money that the small school had and, therefore, he was expected to teach everything that somebody else didn't want to. I'm glad to say that most of you have gotten well above that, but probably the principals that are on the level that I was on are still back today running their schools. They couldn't spare them. After all, I wouldn't say this in front of a lot of people, but as long as we're just here, kind of a little select group—I didn't know when I looked at this group whether to figure that the schools were fortunate to have such a wonderful lot of people here or to have them the other 364, or whatever it is, days of the year.

But be that as it may, our problem on manpower is to try to take what we've got, whether it's good, bad, or indifferent—and it's all of them—whether it's tall or short, whether it's wise or foolish or just lacking knowledge, whether their feet are flat or their heads are flat—take them as they are and try to get something out of them because, believe me, this thing of setting up an ideal of what you'd like to have is of very little consequence if there's nothing of it on the market and there isn't very much of it anticipated until the graduates that are now freshmen have arrived at the place where they will have all those qualities and perhaps by that time we'll find out that something has happened that happens between football teams in the spring and the end of the season in the fall. We've got 152 million people in this country. Everyone thinks they're all available to each of their several activities. That's one of the difficulties of my job because the 152 million is what you add up and is not what each using activity can expect to have. Some of you gentlemen are married, and you know very well how difficult it is to watch your bank account when your wife writes checks and neglects to use stubs and decides on how much money is in the bank by how many checks are still left in the checkbook. Now that is somewhat the problem on this manpower business. Of 152 million of them, there's around 40 million that haven't reached the age of fourteen yet, and they're the greatest asset this country has; but if I've got any grandfathers in this group (and you needn't stand up), you know in this baby-sitting business that these youngsters, while they're great assets for the future, they aren't particularly useful just at the moment in trying to carry on the work of the world. On the other hand, you as a grandfather know that there are 20 million around our age who will have to make

our contributions first of all on rather short days, and we'll have to have some innerspring mattresses to assist us during the off-hours and nights to see that we husband the things that we are going to contribute — and, necessarily, advice is what we feature. We've got a great deal of tested advice. We've tested it and found it wanting. And therefore we're very happy to pass it on to anybody else that may be operationally more capable of taking it and doing something with it. But be that as it may, when you subtract the 40 million below or around the 14 and 20 million (and I'm not going to get into ages — if I were talking about men I'd be talking about the 50's; if I were talking about the ladies, probably I'm in the late 20's). But there's about that much difference — in fact, I think there actually is. There's not too many ladies here this morning, and I suppose there's no use to say that I'm always surprised about how men as old as they are can marry ladies as young as their wives seem to be.

But be that as it may, when we begin to get into the manpower groups in which I have primary interest, the numbers are far less than 150 million. In fact, registered at the present time we have about 11 million and almost 3 million of those are already too old on the present basis, and I do not happen to be one of those who favor going above 26 until business gets a great deal worse than it is now. That ought to get me a few votes around here in this group.

So as we go below 26, however, we find that age and acceptability and dependency — dependency of others upon them, alleged or otherwise, and alleged always becomes greater in times of stress, as you naturally expect — occupational things, not only those things they are capable of doing now in skills, professions, and scientific, and technological things, but also the things they hope to be able to do when the more or less extensive period of training varying from four or five years, is over. When that period is over, they will undoubtedly make great contributions to the world. But somebody has to keep their hand in the dike as little Peter did in my third reader until somebody else is available. So occupational is something that we must give a great deal of consideration to, and then we have almost 3 million veterans who are young enough to be under 26 years of age, and we are doing a moderately good job of making some more too. So that is another group that must be subtracted, and first thing you know I've almost got to add something, just absolute numbers, in order to keep from working with minus signs. You take 8 million minus 3 minus a million that have dependents minus another million that no one wants just at the moment because the market isn't that bad, then put another one-half million in the armed forces and that leaves only about a million and a half to work with; and on the basis of a million having already been unacceptable, you wonder whether the million and a half you've got left has too many people who will be acceptable. That all adds up to the fact that we've got to get a little different idea and a little more realistic on whom we can accept and we can't accept. Now don't think I charge this group here with all of the alleged illiteracy we have in this

country. Illiteracy is a disease of moment. At the moment that illiteracy might have some tendency to assist you in something you'd prefer to do rather than something the nation at the moment is urging you to do, you see, that puts a premium on the inability to read or read rapidly or read understandingly or having done either one to mark down intelligently. After all, brother, the test left many things to be desired in the first place. So, we needn't be too much disturbed; we should be very much disturbed, but it's not a good measure of illiteracy in this country because what we are asking the person to do who passes is a little different than the incentive you use to get high grades in school.

So acceptability is a rather peculiar thing. Independency in a lot of nations is paid little attention of. We pay an allotment and let it go at that, but America has been built on different lines, and therefore we are always going to have more dependency. I think that of most nations and I hope so because that's one of the reasons we are different, and we can perhaps do things that cannot be done elsewhere, but if we are not careful and carry all these things to an extreme, then first thing you know we have no one. Now this problem of manpower can also be divided into now and future.

Now, now is a simple thing. We are not in war — at least I heard on good authority that we were not. Our hopes, rather than our intelligence, make us believe that perhaps if we get into a posture of strength that we can avoid all-out war. I hope so. It is a foundation of the things which I believe in and which I advocate is the one chance of avoiding, if this is war, worse war — if this is not war, then war — it is rapidly and effectively to become strong. But strength means individuals, and I'm not going to debate the question of mass armies. We've a long way to go before we'll be confronted with that problem. We as a nation of 150 million are going to have to mobilize quite a few more people before we'll have to solve the problem of whether we're going to have mass forces of any kind. I don't know what our force is today — it's probably somewhat over 2 million. The objective is set at approximately $3\frac{1}{2}$ million and upon that I am presently discussing the mathematics. And by the way, I was not a major in mathematics, and there's many things in which I have shortcomings. But I do have little difficulty in seeing that if in our manpower crop of one million 50 thousand, which is the result of the low birthrate of the 30's, if 250,000 or approximately of those cannot be accepted, and if another 100,000 or so have to go to school, then when I multiply 600,000 by 2, I do not get 2 million man years — I get 1 million 200 thousand man years. Now, of course, there are two ways to get that number larger — one is to use a larger multiplier, and the man who is going away with the forces looks with a great deal of doubt on the increasing of months. In other words, we are asking more for 27 months. The Senate Preparedness Committee, which is a subcommittee of the Armed Forces Committee of the Senate, has recommended about 26 months in one week, which merely means 24 months without any leave. And yet, to multiply that by 600,000 doesn't give you 2 million. And unless you have somewhere near 2 million that you

are raising under an emergency or under a short-term arrangement, then that means that you've got to find somewhere more than a million and a half of professionals, and we never have supported with a voluntary enlistment in this country even a million and a half. Because at the time we had a million and a half under volunteer circumstances, it's always been at the tail-end of a cycle, where we had already scared more of them in and then abolish the scare and then found ourselves driven to have some more means than the voluntary.

So I don't see yet how we could maintain these forces at 27 months. But being a hopeful sort of person, you can feel that perhaps before the 27 months is gone something would happen or we would have some other arrangement. But that's hope, not mathematics. So when we are going to start this thing is controversial. There are many of you that want to start it at no time, and I think we all join in that. It's like paying taxes—it's never a good time to pay taxes. Just never. But, unfortunately, the military tax is something we're either going to collect from the individuals or we're going to suffer in the mass because it wasn't collected. Now there's just no way of carrying a load without most everyone carrying a share of it. There isn't anything in democracy, or if you happen to be of the other persuasion and believe that the Constitution has said that this country has a right to have a Republican form of government, it still becomes necessary that each carry his load because the load is just as great and the carriers are about the same number under either one. So I want to get entirely out of the political end of it. When I speak of democracy, it will have a small d.

So you can have controversy over whether you start at 19 or 20 or 18. There's one thing about doing any job—the sooner you get started, the sooner you get it over. Now I realize that there are many people—my mail reflects the feeling on the part of the United States that many of our people are too young at 18. I want to say just a little bit about that before I close. I'm going to speak a word or two about what I think about emergency and what are some of the things that I believe about youth. But just the same, it is true that the younger you begin, the sooner you get through. The later you begin, the more you interrupt and the longer you keep away from the productive part of life the individual that sometime or other must pay his military tax. Now, of course, if a person is scientific, professional, or something else, there's always the hope that he becomes those things so that he can make a greater contribution to his country by giving his service of a professional, scientific, or skillful nature. And that's all very fine if you have a system that transcends three months, six months, a year or two years. Because there's no use deferring a man for something that takes ten years, and then have him figure that if he can get on to that that you will abolish the law before it's time to collect. Now that's one of the difficulties we've been in, and you might as well make up your minds that you are either going into something that either has a long range business in it or there's no validity to excuse somebody from the responsibility with the idea that he's going to pay later. And don't

make it so that he has to pay voluntarily — that's asking a little too much of him.

I'm engaged now and I'm not going to get in that in hunting some people that were allegedly note-signers some days in the past. I'm not criticizing. I think the government should have made arrangements to require whatever they expected of them, not turning them loose and sort of try to encourage them at a later date — it doesn't work.

Now, to build this up has two or three things that I think are of considerable consequence. First of all, is to set the age. I haven't any particularly strong feelings about an age. The only thing is I think we ought to get at it with our eyes open and not believe that we can have cake and eat it.

I wish I could say that we could have four months' training for everybody and that would make our armed forces, but the very mathematics of it floors me. I don't even know how you can do it with 27 months, but I just am simple enough to know that 27 months will come nearer than four. I know that in 1947 we had a market where you could have sold 4 or 6 months. Most people didn't want to buy it. Now a lot of them would like to buy it. The only trouble is that it is off the market. This is a different time. Perhaps if we had bought then we wouldn't have had to be seeking bargains now. But now is not a time for bargains. Unfortunately, we pay for it a little later.

The setting of how long, I am afraid, is a matter of mathematics, and whether or not we are going to be permanent or whether we are going to consider this an emergency and try to take a shot in the arm hoping that the world is changed, it seems to me for what little I've read in history (and I was not a history major, either) and two or three experiences I have had subsequent to 1917-19 and subsequent to 1940-45 indicate to me that it is about time we begin to determine that survival is a long-range and not an emergency proposition; and the sooner we make up our minds to settle, to try to live permanently rather than figuring each storm is the last and as soon as it blows out that we can go back to the ease of living — then I think that's a mistake we've made too many times and I'm afraid we'll make it once too many times. I don't want to see any more last wars fought. I've been through two of those, not particularly dangerously, but at least I read the papers during the periods they were going on.

So this bill has some new things about education, and how well and how long they'll last are going to depend on how much intelligence we have and how much we keep it — to really do the things we say we are doing and not getting into free buses that everybody climbs on, and the first thing you know, no one is deferred because we didn't have enough sense to defer the right people, and the right people didn't behave themselves after deferral and didn't contribute and the public rose in their wrath and said, "We are not going to have an aristocracy of power and we're not going to have one of money, and we're not going to have one of intelligence, either." Both of them constitute classes rather than masses. And if there is intelligence, there is always the question of its responsibility because the more you know, obviously,

the more you owe — and not otherwise. And I don't believe anybody wants to see a class, a profession, or scientific group or anything else that has any of its origin due to any form of escapism, because that's not what you want in any of those groups. I'm not saying that we should not defer the training of people that they may render greater service, but there is no other reason. It's not an individual reason; it's a national; it's a group. If a group can get more service by doing something now, well and good. That's intellectual. That's intelligence. That's smart. That's effective. But if it's something in the form of escapism, it has no more justification than escapism by money, or power, or anything else. And that we must understand, and that we must live by.

Now I want to say a word or two in closing on two things: first, the question of emergency. Maybe this is an emergency; I don't know. But I do know that they happen many, many times. It's the same old question of the old army sergeant, probably about my age, who looks at the way they are doing things now and says, "Wal, the Army isn't like it used to be." Then he says, "As a matter of fact, it never was." And so this emergency we're living in — of course we realize it's emergency, but a lot of people who lived in other days didn't realize they were going through an emergency. This happens to be Lincoln's birthday, and I recall that Lincoln was a very young boy just at the close of the 1812 war, which was in 1815, we were not supposedly again in a struggle of any consequence until the War Between the States — I say that, although I'm reasonably far, there was, however, a little difficulty with Mexico in '45, '46, and '47. And I've seen some history books, of course, they perhaps weren't the best — you may have better ones now — that said it was a comparatively quiet time in American history between 1815 and 1845. Yet, as the people from Florida know, the Seminoles were killing people daily in that area at that time, pestilence swept over the country, the winters were cold, we were cutting down the forests and dying of all sorts of diseases. I wonder if the people who carried the torch of civilization westward across this country during that period would have said, had you talked with them, that it was a very quiet time. Nothing going on. We all have the tendency to feel that we are in the center not only of the universe but of all history and of all time, and the things we're struggling with today are just really the biggest problems that ever confronted this old world. But when we look back in history, we give them a line which said, "Things were comparatively quiet and peaceful during that period."

Now a word on youth. What's youth got to do with all this? Well, youth's got everything to do with it because youth is tomorrow. Yesterday is gone; today is getting on towards noon; and tomorrow is really all that is important and the youth will carry tomorrow or they will not.

I've got four youngsters — got six grandchildren — got four in-laws. I think they're a great group. I don't think they're particularly different from other youth. I don't know but that you're far enough from your school to

think youth pretty fine. Sure! If there's anything wrong with youth, it's the generation that went before them. But yet, I, as political parties sometime do, view with alarm the fact that we, not they initially, but we have talked about the fact we are confronted with the atomic bomb or some other things that no other age ever met. Well other ages met a lot of things we haven't met, and they didn't sleep on innerspring mattresses the night before and the afternoon to meet them either. They slept on the ground; they ate what they could; they froze in the winter and had sickness in the summer. And so it went, and yet they met their problems and they gave us the greatest nation on earth. And what kind of people are we to go around crying in front of our youth that this is a terrible time. We don't know what is going to happen to us. Who ever did? What right have we to believe that we should know from day to day that we live, is this life a struggle or isn't it? We would rot—I repeat, we would rot if we had certainty and security, because no character was ever developed when they had to do nothing.

So I don't know what the future is. No one has ever known the future. Our approach to the future will not depend upon the environment without; it will depend on what is within. And we have in these high schools an opportunity to put something inside of a boy and a girl that, no matter what the environment is, what mattereth that? The conquering of environment does not come from that environment but from within—within the person. I am disturbed at the hysteria that sometimes gets among some of our youngsters because some of us oldsters have talked perhaps idly but pessimistically. Every age had its trials. A person that was shot with the arrow of an Indian was just as dead as the person who was blown to pieces with a bomb—and he didn't have near as much company. So let's not get to thinking that we hold all of the troubles that have ever beset this world. We inherited a fine country because other people dared to make it what it is; and if we're worth living in it, we're worth being prepared through our youth to meet whatever comes.

Labor's Stake in the Education of Youth

WALTER P. REUTHER

IT'S not often that I have the privilege of being billed on the same program with General Hershey. As a rule, I'm invited to these kind of meetings, and my teammate is from the National Association of Manufacturers. Of course, the arrangements committee always feels that one of the things we ought to encourage in America is a balanced intellectual diet and that's why we always wind up with the NAM on the same program. Another advantage that General Hershey has over me—he started out as a school teacher and

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is much better equipped to discuss problems before a group of this kind than I am. The best I could do was to marry a school teacher.

The theme of your convention, "Education in a Changing World," is certainly a very timely one, because we're living in a very difficult period in the history of the world — we're neither at war nor are we at peace. And that's why the problems we face are much more complex than they were in the last war when we were fighting a total war. I worked with General Hershey in Washington during that period. Many of the problems that we are wrestling with today are more difficult because there is not the psychological impact in the present situation that we had in the last war. History has made America the custodian of world freedom. As the strongest of the free nations of the world, we share the major portion of world responsibility. The people of America, because we do possess a fuller measure of freedom than any people in the whole world, have got to realize that in this period of challenge that we who do possess this greater measure of freedom must accept freedom, not as a luxury to enjoy as a new Easter bonnet or a good juicy steak dinner but as something to fight with and as a set of truths to go with. If we are to discharge our responsibilities to ourselves and a free world, we've got to mobilize freedom to meet both the threat of war and the challenge of peace.

The struggle in the world between freedom and tyranny, between democracy and communism is not a struggle for geography alone. Basically, the struggle is a struggle for men's minds and their hearts and their loyalties. And we cannot win if we fight only with guns. We've got to demonstrate that democracy has the economic strength and the moral power in the world to afford both the weapons for adequate military defense and to forge the tools of peace so that we can wage the peace at the same time we build adequate military defense. This is not just a matter of high purpose; this is a matter of democratic survival.

We have the strength, the economic resources. We've got the most productive tools in the history of mankind. The question is, have we got the courage, have we got the will to mobilize these tools and these forces and apply them to the task before us. There are many, many unfinished jobs on democracy's agenda. Take the school system. You people, perhaps better than any other group in America, know the deficiencies of our school system. In Detroit we've got thousands of children going to school on a swing-shift basis. We took our war plants off the swing shift when the war was over, and we put the schools on the swing shift. Millions of students are being denied their rightful educational opportunities, and we are robbing America of a great resource by not giving these children in the elementary schools their rightful educational opportunities. Classrooms are over-crowded; teachers are under-paid; yes, principals are under-paid too. In terms of the contributions that other people are making in our free society, compared to what they receive, the people in the teaching profession are among the most under-paid group in American society.

There is something wrong with a country that can spend billions and billions, as we must, to train and equip our young people to die if war comes. And yet we lack the will to spend a much smaller amount that's required to train our young people to live in peace. There is something morally wrong if our country can spend billions and billions and billions to train our people to die on the battlefields of the world if war comes, but are unable and unwilling to spend the money we need to make our school system into an adequate educational setup.

Indifference in America. In Detroit during the last election we had where were elected members of the board of education, only one in every four people voted. They didn't care about who was on the board of education. This indifference—we've got to overcome that in America because that saps the strength of freedom. We've got to make people believe and understand that politics is the people's business, that politics is the practical, day-to-day, house-keeping job of democracy. We've got to make people realize that their schools are important. I saw a story in the paper some months back where a community near the city of Washington had on the ballot during the last election two proposals on which the people voted: one proposal, to appropriate funds to float bonds to expand their school facilities; and another proposal, to appropriate money and float bonds to expand their sewer system. The proposal to expand the sewer system was carried overwhelmingly, and the proposal to appropriate money to expand the schools was defeated overwhelmingly. You see, that's really what we're talking about. When people begin to put and give priority to their sewer systems over their school systems, we're in trouble in the world. That would be a problem at any time in the history of mankind. But at a time when we're charged with leading the free world down a very treacherous road, it's more tragic.

You can't consider the problems of schools in a vacuum because what you do in a classroom is a part of the total economic and social environment in which a child grows up and develops. And, therefore, we've got to fight on some other fronts in this total struggle of mobilized freedom.

Take the housing problem. Millions of families, millions of children are growing up in slum neighborhoods. I read a report of a survey made in Chicago recently where the ratio of juvenile delinquency in slum neighborhoods was twenty times as great as juvenile delinquency in good neighborhoods. That's understandable. I spoke to a social workers' conference in Cleveland sometime back where they were discussing the problem of juvenile delinquency, and I said, "You know, the trouble is we keep fighting these things on a negative basis instead of a positive basis. Children grow up in slum neighborhoods without a decent home and the kind of home environment that every child ought to have, without the benefit of wholesome recreational facilities to give the growing child an opportunity of self-expression of the tremendous energy in a growing child. They play in the back alleys and they get in trouble. And what do we do? Why, we're always willing to appro-

priate money to build new jails to put them into. That's the negative approach. And I said if we were as willing to work on the positive side of this problem we could make some progress. What we ought to do if we want to talk about the problem of juvenile delinquency is we ought to have the courage to build more and more and more correct houses for these kids to live in and then we wouldn't have to build so many houses of correction to send them to because they didn't have decent homes to live in. But all the time we're willing to spend billions and billions and billions for negative things. I say if democracy is to give leadership to the free world, we've got to demonstrate the will and the courage to spend for the positive values of peace just as we show courage spending money for the negative ends of war.

The last war cost the American people, when we will have fully paid for it, \$1,300,000,000,000. That's so much money that it's difficult for us to comprehend how much it really is. But it cost us 29½ billion dollars every month of the war. It cost us 985 million dollars per day. It cost us 41 million dollars per hour. Now let us measure what the cost of peacetime values are compared to the cost of war. When President Truman talks about Point Four, about a positive program to help people to help themselves, to fight poverty and hunger in the world, to fight communism at its very source, there are men of little faith in America who say, "We shouldn't waste the money doing that. We can't afford it." Forty-five million dollars is just peanuts compared to the cost of war. Forty-five million dollars represents 1 hour and 13 minutes of the cost of the war. We could give the people of the world aid to help them help themselves in the struggle against communism, and we could give them forty-five million dollars each year for thirty thousand years before we would spend as much as we spent in the war.

Take the Federal aid to education bill — 300 million dollars we've asked for. And we've been fighting for it, and we need it and we need more than that to get our schools off the swing-shift and to get our antiquated buildings replaced with decent buildings. But do we get the 300 million dollars? No! Tied up in red tape, and we don't get it. Three hundred million dollars is less than one third of the cost of one day in the war. I watch them down there. I watched them during the last war when the Army and the Navy says give us billions for bombers and battleships, they have a big 24-inch pipeline and they open that pipeline and they give you billions and billions and billions. And when you say give us money for schools so that we can fight on the positive end of the mobilization of freedom, they don't open up the 24-inch pipeline. They go to the Congressional medicine cabinet and get out an eye-dropper and they give you a few drops for schools. That's what's wrong in America. (Applause.)

Take the fight for old-age security. We believe that, when a man or a woman has worked his or her productive years, he or she has made a contribution to society. Both ought to be able to look forward with some sense of security in their old age. But millions of people are growing older in

America under the threat of insecurity of their old age. When you are young and you can work and you can fight, that isn't a serious problem. But when you are old and you can't get a job, but you've got to go on living, it's a problem. I testified before the Senate committee some months back on the Social Security legislation, and I presented to that committee a family budget for an aged couple of \$174 a month. I broke it down into every dime — how many pair of socks the man could have and how many suits of cotton underwear, how much clothing the woman would buy, how much butter and meat they could eat, how much they could pay for rent — everything. And I said, "Show me, gentlemen of the committee, if there are any items that are too high." They couldn't. But they said, "Mr. Reuther, we admire your idealism, but we can't afford that." And I said, "Gentlemen, do you know what this costs compared to the cost of war? We can give people this kind of social security in their old age, when they're too old to work but too young to die, we can give them this measure of security, eleven million old people in America, can give them this kind of security for a whole year for less than what it cost to run the war for one week."

Now these matters, as I said before, are not a matter of humanity alone. It's not a matter of high purpose alone. It's a matter of democratic survival because America cannot mobilize the tremendous moral force in the world that free men symbolize unless we are prepared to demonstrate by tangible democratic achievement that men in the kind of world which we are fighting for can have both bread *and* freedom, and that you don't have to trade one to keep the other. Now that's the basic struggle that we're fighting for. I believe that if we mobilize the productive power of the American economy, which is freedom's greatest material asset, if we break the bottlenecks of monopoly and scarcity, we can increase the productive power of America from 75 to 100 billion dollars in the next five years. And out of that increased production, we can forge both adequate weapons of military defense and we can forge the tools to wage a positive peace offensive. And it's by doing both those jobs that we can mobilize freedom; we can get off the defensive in the world and take the offensive in the struggle against world communism. We've got the power; we've got the tools; and I say we've got the moral strength in America to do that job.

We've got to fight inflation and a lot of other practical problems. You cannot win the fight against communist aggression on the battlefield, on the battlefronts, unless you're prepared to fight against inflation with equal courage on the homefront. We will sap the strength of our economy if we don't begin to get effective price control. And by effective price control we don't mean rolling back the price of Cadillacs and rolling back the price of scrap iron. We mean rolling back the price of food and clothing that the average family has to buy every day. (Applause.)

We need a tax law that reflects a program of equality of sacrifice. The only way you can mobilize a free people is on the basis of everyone in that free

society paying his share. Nobody ought to try to have somebody carry his part of the burden. The price of freedom has always come high in the world, and the American people are prepared to pay whatever price it takes to defend freedom. But everybody ought to be tightening their economic belts together. But unfortunately that is not true, and to the extent it is not true you weaken the moral fiber of our effort to mobilize freedom.

Little people in America who make \$5,000 a year or less are currently paying the same tax load that they paid at the peak of the tax load during the last war. But families of \$500,000 income are currently paying \$40,000 less in taxes than they paid at the peak of the tax load in the last war. That isn't how you mobilize a free people. That isn't how you tap the spiritual force and the will to fight—you do it only by spreading the burden on the basis of equality of sacrifice.

I say America faces this great challenge in the world, this struggle with both the weapons of war and the tools of peace, this struggle to enlist the loyalty and to win the hearts and minds of millions of people whom we need in this struggle if we are to build the kind of a world that we believe in and make freedom secure.

I have been saying for a long time in America that if you can get people marching and fighting and sacrificing for the negative ends of war then why can't you get people marching and fighting and sacrificing for the positive ends of peace? If people will make great sacrifice because they share common hatreds and fears, why can't we tap the spiritual reservoir of free people and get them to make comparable efforts because they share the same hopes and aspirations in peace. That's the great challenge before the American people. That's the challenge of leading the free world in the struggle against communist tyranny. And I say on this day when we pay honor to the memory of Abraham Lincoln, we ought to reaffirm our faith in basic and human democratic values and let's mobilize freedom in the world so that "government of the people, by the people, and for the people shall not perish from the earth." Thank you. (Applause.)

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National Association of Secondary-School Principals

1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.,

Washington 6, D. C.

Sixth General Session

Tuesday, February 13, 9:30 A. M., Ballroom

PRESIDING: *James E. Blue*, Principal, West Senior High School, Rockford, Illinois; Member, Executive Committee, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Invocation was pronounced by *The Rev. Louis I. Newman*, Congregation Rodeph Sholem, New York, New York. Music was presented by the Stamford High School Choir, Stamford, Connecticut, under the direction of *W. Raymond Randall*.

The Place of Education in America's Economy

FRANK M. TOTTON

HOW refreshing it is in these days when the charge of Red is being bandied about so easily to have as president of this great Association a Blue. Blue by name and blue by nature. It's rather amusing to have me as a speaker to speak to such a group of orators as you because I'm no speaker. I'm like the singer who thought he was a singer. One night as he was singing a group of songs, he came to "My Old Kentucky Home." He just laid it on the line, giving it all he had. And finally when he finished, a man down front burst out weeping. The singer stopped and said, "Oh, I'm sorry, my friend; I didn't realize you were a Southerner." The man said, "I'm not a Southerner; I'm a singer."

A great many speakers we hear these days, hold forth on all sorts of subjects. Some of these speakers are pretty poor, as you will shortly see. One of the reasons they are, I think, is because they do not know exactly what to say, and often the reason they do not know just exactly what to say is because of the diverse opinions of their audience. Just like a minister who once had a congregation evenly divided between Liberals and Conservatives, he used to have to preach something like this: *Unless you repent in a measure and are saved so to speak, you are, I am sorry to say, in danger of Hell fire*, to a certain extent. But there is no such diversity of opinion here today, because we all believe thoroughly in the cause of education and what it has done for America's economy.

I am delighted, too, Mr. Blue, to see so many women here. You know, we men sometimes pride ourselves and say that we run all the educational systems and all the banks and everything else. But we don't, do we, ladies? You have a lot to say. I was reminded of that sometime ago when I said to my wife, "Do you know, dear, if I had it all to do over again, do you know who I'd marry?" She said, "No, who?" I said, "You." And she said, "Oh no you wouldn't."

Frank M. Totton is a Vice President of the Chase National Bank, New York, New York.

You've had a great record in this Association running down through the years. I read of an old man who celebrated his 100th birthday anniversary sometime ago. Friends came in to wish the old man well. One friend said to the old gentleman, "So you have lived 100 years, well! well! You must have seen a lot of changes, haven't you?" And the old man replied, "Yep, and I've been agin' every one of them." Well, now, you've seen a lot of changes, but you haven't been against them. You've helped to make them.

Now just so that you may know who's responsible for this suffering, I was invited here by Joseph McLain. You can blame him. He and I live in the same town out here a ways. I always do everything Mr. McLain asks me to do because he's so nice and so polite. Maybe you don't realize how polite Joe McLain is; but just to show you how polite he is—the other night he and I got into one of these subway trains about five o'clock. You know the commuter rush is on. We finally pushed our way into a car and we held onto a strap, swaying around. Finally, at the next station in came a great big fat woman. She crowded right in and stepped right on Joe McLain's toe. He gave her a chance to apologize, winced a little, but she didn't. Instead she glared at him and said, "Why don't you put your foot where it belongs?" And Mr. McLain smiled very sweetly and said, "Don't tempt me, madam, don't tempt me."

Mr. Blue mentioned the fact that in my spare time I work for a bank. I'm sorry he gave that away. I wanted to get away to a good start because some people don't like bankers. Strange but it's true—I had a man come in sometime ago. He sat down at my desk and talked on and on and on—you know the type. Finally he said to me, "Now there are hundreds of ways of making money. There are just literally hundreds of ways of making money, but there's only one way that's honest." I said, "Is that so? What's that?" He said, "Huh. I thought you wouldn't know."

Since Wendell Wilkie came into this fair world of ours, we've heard a great deal about One World. You know, I think there are two worlds. I believe there's one world that we can measure by rule and rhyme, and there's another world that we can feel by our hearts and our imagination. The real teaching, it seems to me will give us the capacity not only to rule, measure, and rhyme but also to feel because after all we live in deeds not years, in thoughts not breath, in feeling not in figures on a dial. We should count time by heart throbs. He most lives who thinks most, feels the noblest, acts the best.

I believe that the two universal solvents—the two twin pillars, you might say—on which this great economic fabric of ours is controlled, this marvelous America, these two are religion and education. I heard General Marshall sometime ago at a luncheon, when a presentation was made to him, say, "When I was Secretary of State, I was disappointed that I did not get further with the Russians than I did. You know, I thought, if I went to the Russians with a spirit of good will and understanding, that they would appreciate the sincerity

of the American people behind me. But, they didn't. Why? They had no common denominator — no basis on which we could meet. They didn't have the spiritual idealism that our people have. And then, the reason that this world is in the mess that it is today is because spiritual progress has not kept pace with scientific advancement." Not the teacher, not the man of religion, but the soldier, the Chief of Staff, the architect of victory, Head of the Red Cross and now Secretary of Defense — General Marshall said, "Our spiritual progress in this country and in the world has not kept pace with scientific advancement and that's why we are where we are today."

I'm not afraid that Communism will eventually sweep over this world, because Communism is godless. Anything godless will eventually fail. In the affairs of men, God still has the final word.

And so I think that education — real education — should be religious as well as scientific and cultural. What is the object of education? As I see it, it's to develop high thinking, to enrich our imagination, and to give us a trained capacity from mental labor. Never was it easier to secure a good education than here in this favored land of America today, because we have public schools and high schools and colleges everywhere. We have night schools and correspondence schools and evening institutes. We have public libraries and museums and art galleries all about us. No one is too poor or too humble to secure a good education in America today. Of course, our system is criticized as everything in America is. Many people criticize our educational system in that they say that it operates along the system of mass production. We just turn out on an endless chain of conveyors, an assembly line. They say that all of our students are forced to proceed at the same rate of speed, and the speed of all is the speed of the slow. Defenders of this system, however, say that this is as it should be — that here in this glorious country of ours all men are equal. We often hear that said, don't we? We're all equal. It's an oft-repeated slogan, but it's a false one. It's a fallacy. We're not all equal. We're all alike, it seems to me, in being unequal. And how fortunate that it is true. My goodness, if we all wanted to be bankers, what a terrible world this would be. As I see it, the object of education is to make more pronounced the differences and the inequalities among us, and help each one of us eventually to find our distinct and unique part so that we can serve our day and generation better than anyone else in that particular field, because there we are unique. The object of education, as I see it, is to develop and bring out that talent that is ours.

Whenever a thinker arrives on this planet, things start to happen. Naturally, you as educators know that. Because a thinker starts to ask questions and no one can answer him. And then he starts to answer his own questions — to think, to think, to think his way through his problem. Think from darkness into light, and then another truth is born and given to the world, and succeeding generations are forever his debtor. The strange thing about the thinker is that he asks no reward for his achievement. His reward is in the successful

culmination of his line of thought. Take the field of medical research, for instance. What marvels are being accomplished there today. All these back scenes and cultures of preventive medicine are eradicating practically all of the scourges that have plagued mankind ever since the dawn of recorded time. Yes, the man of medical research doesn't ask any reward. How could we set a reward? Can suffering humanity released through endless ages and pain set a proper price — pay the reward? Oh, no.

You know, I believe the measure of a life is not its income but its outgo. That may sound strange for a man working in a bank to say, but I believe it's true. The measure of a human life is not its income but its outgo. And you as educators, outstanding in your particular field, realize that in teaching these young people to give of themselves to suffering humanity — to go out into the field, the market-place, and the streets where people need the touch of a friendly hand and help them — relieve the pain, the suffering, the toil, the frustration of this upset world.

I looked upon a sea and lo 'twas dead
Although thy hermit snow was on Jordan's head.
How came a fate so dire?
The tale's soon told
All that it got it kept
And fast did hold.
All tributaries' dreams found here their grave
Because that sea received but never gave.
Oh sea that's dead, teach me to know and feel
That selfish grasp and greed my doom will seal.
And help me, Lord, my best myself to give
That I may others bless and like Thee live.

My wife and I were traveling along the road sometime ago and saw a summer hotel that had been remodeled. On the outside of this summer hotel was a sign — "Open to take tourists." Someone had written under it, "And how!" Well, there are a great many organizations and groups of people open to take us today, aren't there? To take us as Americans — to take over this great country of America of ours. And we've just got to make up our minds that we will not be taken. We'll keep the road ahead open for all succeeding future generations of Americans.

John Ruskin once said, as you will recall, "When we build, let us think that we built for ever. Let it not be for present use or enjoyment alone, but let it be such work as our descendants will thank us for. And as men view the wrought labor of our hand, they will say, 'See. This our fathers did for us.'" And I know you appreciate your great work, the power you have in succeeding generations, as you fill so well the young minds and send them out as leaders. You know succeeding generations will say of you and your work, "See. This our fathers did for us."

Those of you who have visited Quebec may recall that natural citadel there that they call the Plains of Abraham. It towers right sheer from the

walk. Some years ago the British Army, under command of General Wolfe, captured that height, took it from the French. It seemed almost impossible, too, because they said, "The natural fortifications are so tremendous that a group of school boys could have held that against any advancing army." Sometime ago a group of sightseers were visiting Quebec and went over the Plains of Abraham to see that magnificent citadel. They were being shown around by a guide. Finally one of these sightseers said to this guide, "How is it possible for the British Army to storm this height and take it from the French? How is it possible?" And the guide replied somewhat like this, "Well, you see, after a time the garrison in charge here became a bit careless. They became a bit pleasure-loving. And one day the British Army saw its opportunity, stormed the height, struck, and took it." Well, we don't have to go back to the Plains of Abraham—British history, do we? All we have to do is go back in our own history only ten years to an island in the Pacific and see what happens when a group of men become a bit careless, a bit pleasure-loving. It's a frightful thing, isn't it, to see the breakdown of a human being because he has become a bit careless, pleasure-loving? It's a frightful tragedy to see the breakdown of a country because it becomes a bit careless, a bit pleasure-loving, and then cancers and insidious and subversive forces work into the fabric and sink that stately ship. It's frightful. And so you and I, as educators and American citizens, have got to make up our minds that we'll never become careless and we'll never become a bit pleasure-loving. We'll keep our standards high. You as educators keep your standards high—your standards of your own individual lives—by your life an example—and secondly, the standards of your great profession so that you may know they serve youth and America, in turn, may nobly serve the world, as destiny seems to indicate they shall.

Someone once said that great hopes make great men. Great hopes make great men, and you as educators have great hopes, haven't you, for young America? Because of your great hopes for them you are going to build a worthy citizenry of a great and greater country in the days to come. Everything we do these days is overshadowed by the forebodings of war, a war in Korea, the fears of a greater world war which, pray God, will never come about. General Eisenhower just completing a survey of those countries came back and made his report. We look to Europe with high hopes, hoping that we can coalesce in one great consolidation the free nations of the world to fight the things that we hate. So we are looking eastward across the Atlantic—to Europe, to the Near East, to the Middle East, and the Far East. They say that our country here is always welcome across the Atlantic because they say out of those countries have come our great political faiths and our great religions. For instance, they say out of Europe have come those political beliefs that we call democracy, socialism, and anarchism, and communism, and nationalism, and Zionism. And they say out of the eastern Mediterranean and the Far East have come those great religious concepts that we call Buddhism, and Judaism, and Islam, and Christianity. So we are looking to the

East with high hopes today as the Wise Men of old. We look to the East for the rising things, for the dawn of the rising sun; but we look to the West, the crimson West, for the things that are done. For there in the East they dream their dreams of the things they hope to be, but here in the West, the crimson West, the dreams of the East come true. That, to Henry Kauffman, sometime ago told some of us this story at dinner. He said, "Years ago when I was a theological student in Scotland, one of my professors was the Rev. Dr. James Denny. Dr. Denny was a great Biblical scholar, a marvelous preacher, an all-around man of God. And he had a most extensive library. One night I called upon Dr. Denny at home. He ushered me into his library. I sat down, and as I did I saw four walls of this library completely covered with books, shelf on shelf of books, books, books. Probably the finest private library in all Scotland. As I looked I saw on one shelf in the corner that there were no books, but on that shelf I saw carpenter's tools—a hammer, a plane, a saw, a chisel, nails, and so on—and so I said to Dr. Denny, 'Oh, I see, Dr. Denny, apparently you have a hobby.' And Dr. Denny looked over and saw the carpenter's tools and said, 'Oh, you refer to those tools.' He said, 'No, no, as a matter of fact I haven't. I'm not very good with tools. I wish that I were, but, you see, those tools belong to my father. My father's a humble man, a carpenter, but he did excellent work. He was such a master craftsman that his carpentry took on the excellence of cabinet work. And so when my father died and I had to give away his things, I couldn't give away his tools because they spoke too intimately to me of my father. So I put them there where I would see them every day. As I see them, I say to myself, *In this world in which I work, in this world of words and ideas and ideals, may I be as good a craftsman as my father was in his world.* And so you see, those tools remind me of my father and they say to me, *Son, do your best.*'"

But you as educators are saying that, aren't you? Many of us have had fathers like that. These fathers, these poor fathers, these ancestors who have labored long and well and given us this great educational system that's the pride of the world, have given us this marvelous country that's the hope of the world, labored long and well and gone onward and upward to their reward—I sometimes think they're looking over the battlements at us, hoping and praying that we'll be true to our trust in this great day that is ours.

There are many important people here today, I realize that. I was saying to my wife the other night when we were reading this book, *Sixty Families*—maybe some of you have read it. The author tries to make out the thesis in this book that sixty strong and important families rule all of America. So I said to my wife, "How many really important men do you think there are in this country of ours—how many really important men?" And she said, "Well, I don't know how many there are, but I do know that there is one less than you think."

Now the reason this country of ours is a great land of opportunity, the hope of the world, the leader not only financially but idealistically is because

we have learned team play in America, haven't we? Where else in all the world today do you find people of every race, color, and creed, and skin getting along so beautifully—one great big team.

General Knudsen taught team play, didn't he? You remember, he was president of General Motors, came to this country as a young Danish boy born in Denmark. He finally rose to be president of General Motors. They say he was the father of mass production, the endless chain assembly line. And then when World War II came they drafted him, sent him about this country to speed up production, to get people to pray together, work together, develop this marvel of output. But General Knudsen said that he wasn't always a team player. He said, "As a young man I had a terrible temper." He said, "I was a great big fellow and I was always getting into fights and scrapping. One day when I was about twenty-two or twenty-three years of age I was working in a bicycle factory, and my boss called me in one day and said, 'Bill, we're going to promote you. We're going to make you superintendent of this factory. But we're going to do it in spite of the terrible temper that you have. Now you've got to learn to control yourself. You can't be fighting and hold this job. Say, I suppose, Bill, you could lick any man in this factory, couldn't you?'" Bill said, "Well, I don't know." He said, "Do you suppose you could lick any two men?" "I don't know." "Well, do you think you could lick any ten men?" "No, I don't." Then he said, "Listen, Bill, you might be able to lick any man in this factory; you might be able to lick any two men; conceivably you might be able to lick any ten men. But, Bill, there are 1200 men in this factory. You couldn't lick 1200 men. They'd just make mince meat out of you." General Knudsen said, "I learned something right then and there. I learned never to raise my hand against a man who was working for me. I learned that we could never accomplish anything where anyone was holding back. We all had to link arms and move forward together—team play." And he said, "I realize that hate—hate is the most wasteful and destructive force in all this world." And how true it is. All you and I have to do today is to look about in this world to see what hate has done—the human suffering, the wreckage and rubble. And so you and I interested in educational problems are trying to substitute love for hate, aren't we? To practice the Golden Rule and build up those great concepts and idealisms that have made our country great.

Years ago in New England there was a little girl by the name of Laura Bridgeman. When Laura Bridgeman was two years of age, she was stricken with a serious malady that left her deaf and dumb and blind. Poor little two-year-old girl—a prisoner in pitch-black darkness—deaf, dumb, and blind. A doctor, Dr. Samuel G. Howe, became interested in her case, and he thought, "I wonder if I can break through that prison house. I'll try an experiment." And so, he went over and read to her every day. He took a book. A certain time every day for fifteen minutes he read to her. He took her fingers and placed the fingertips on his lips, and then he read. And he read fifteen minutes every day for ten consecutive days. And then he stopped to see if there would

be any noticeable change or recognition. For several days there wasn't any change, and then, suddenly, one day at that very precise hour, little Laura Bridgeman showed signs of frustration and irritation. And then he knew that was the great moment. He had broken through to her consciousness. From that time on, her educational development became rapid. She became a well-educated woman. Many of us — you and I — with far less handicaps than Laura Bridgeman have looked out on this world and have seen its hates, lusts, bloodshed, destruction, and selfishness; and we've said, "Oh, there's no meaning for all this." And then, suddenly, one day through a great speech or a great sermon or some human or divine contact, suddenly the thought has burst through in our consciousness, "Ah, there is a meaning to all this. Someone is trying to tell me something." That's the thought that came to Laura Bridgeman; that's the thought that comes to you and me. Someone is trying to tell us something. The great Teacher.

Now, cheer up. I'm on my last lap. For the benefit of those of you who are still awake, let me assure you that I'm on my last lap. I'm just like the secretary who was hired by our chairman. He tried her out and found her typewriting and shorthand was terrible; so he passed her on down to our president. He couldn't do anything with this bright young secretary; so he passed her on down to our senior vice president. He found her impossible—he passed her on down to me. So when I finally got this bright young lady, one day I looked up her personnel record and I said, "Well, look's as if you've worked for about all the big shots around here, haven't you?" She looked up into my face, smiled very sweetly and said, "Yes. I'm just about on my last lap now." That's my case.

You know, I believe there are some things in this world that are built to stand, that are enduring — such things as the church and the home and the school, don't you? Enduring! These are the fabric of America. Maybe some of you have been down to Galveston, Texas. If you have, you've seen that great sea wall built along the waterfront of the Gulf. Some years ago the City of Galveston had a tidal wave sweep over, and it did considerable damage to the waterfront. The good people of Galveston made up their minds that that would never happen again. So they brought in the best engineering brains they could muster and they said, "Build us a sea wall along here." The engineering firm did. The chief engineer in charge of that job was a man by the name of George Boskey. George Boskey and his associates labored long and well and built this beautiful wall and departed. Some twelve or fifteen years went by, and one day George Boskey was 3,000 miles from Galveston — way across the continent, up in the wilds of Oregon, doing a job for his firm in virgin timber — 40 miles from a railroad. And suddenly one day, post-haste in rode a messenger with a telegram. He gave the telegram to Mr. Boskey's assistant who sat there. The chief sat over there. The assistant split the envelope open, took out the telegram and read it, and his face went white, because it said, "In a severe storm part of the Galveston sea wall has been swept away." They didn't have nerve enough to take it over and put it

in front of the chief, but finally they did — it must have taken courage. And they took the telegram over, put it down in front of Mr. Boskey. Mr. Boskey picked up the telegram, read it, smiled, and said, "That telegram is a lie. I built that wall to stand." And you know, Mr. Boskey was right. Subsequent investigation proved that it was a false report. Said Mr. Boskey, out of the confidence of a good job well done, "I built that wall to stand."

And so you're saying it in your work, aren't you? I'm building this to stand. Oh, America — how dependent it is upon the right education and the right religious ideals. In the field of America's economy, education has a *prime* rating. Education, as we know it in America, has a great vision and a great future. No vision and you perish. No ideal and you are lost. Your heart must ever cherish some faith at any cost — some dream, some hope to cling to, some rainbow in the sky, some melody to sing to, some service that is high. And that, my friends, is education's place in the American economy.

Student

Panel: Students from Other Lands Appraise Our Secondary Schools

Leader: *Burt Johnson*, Principal, Tenaflly High School, Tenaflly, New Jersey

Student Panel: Students from Other Lands Appraise Our Secondary Schools

BURT JOHNSON

FOUR years ago, our student body had the pleasure of having two South American students as our guests during the school year. Each year since, it has been our policy to invite other foreign students who are neighbors of ours from across the seas to live in our community, to become a student of our school for a year, and to work, study, and play with our students in order that both may get to know and understand each other better. I am not sure how much it has meant for those who have come and gone, or for those still with us (some six in number at the present time) but I do know it has been a marvelous course in human and economic geography, world history, sociology, and international understanding for our students and faculty.

To add to my own appreciation of the opportunities involved, three years ago I was privileged to visit and study several of the school systems of our friends and neighbors in the Pacific and the Far East as a representative of our government. When I returned after a trip of some 35,000 miles, I want to assure you that I had a far greater appreciation of what Thomas Jefferson meant in his letter from France to James Monroe in which he expressed his feelings concerning the opportunities of America. He said, "Its soul, its climate, its equality, liberty, laws, people, and manners. My God! How little do

Burt Johnson is Principal of the Tenaflly High School and Superintendent-elect of the Tenaflly Public Schools, Tenaflly, New Jersey.

my countrymen know what precious blessings they are in possession of, and which no other people on earth enjoy."

Very often, I'm afraid we, as Americans, are so unaware of our privileges that we take entirely too much for granted. In this connection, I am reminded of the minister that was flying from Chicago to Kansas City. The trip had been very uneventful until just before nearing Kansas City. Suddenly a terrific storm broke over the area. Visibility was zero and they were nearing the airport. The minister noticed the gentleman next to him becoming somewhat nervous and fidgety and said to him, "We will soon be there." The gentleman replied, "Yes, but I am thinking of all those tall buildings and the river at the north end of the airport and . . ." The minister was quick to reply, "Have no fear, sir, with all the modern instruments and the radar, electronics, there's nothing to be afraid of. We will land with the ease of a dove." The man replied quickly, "O yeah! Mister, my company makes those instruments!"

We, as principals, may be too much like the minister in our work with the youth of America—that is to say, we may be assuming far more than we have a right to assume. We must remember that *we are not yet prophets*.

During the past six weeks, I have been working with a number of principals in the metropolitan area who are fortunate in having students from abroad in their schools. I asked them to have the students write me a short paper on the advantages of education in America. From the group of some twenty-six students participating, the six I am about to introduce have been selected to give you their own feelings and impressions concerning our schools and the opportunities as they see it. Before introducing them, however, I would like to say this: I wish that you and every student and parent in America could have read all twenty-six papers. They would have provided you with a course of study in citizenship and offer a course of action far more meaningful than many we are using in some of our schools at the present time. They have given me a clearer meaning and understanding of the words of *America, the Beautiful* after having read them.

Presentation by URSULA SACHS:

EVER since schools have been established, efforts have been made to improve school systems and to adjust education to the specific period of time. A very good expedient for making progress in ways of education is comparison with school systems in other countries. When I came to the United States, I did much comparing of the American and German schools. There are many things I like but also a few things I dislike. I should like now to point out some of the most important differences in the academic life of the two countries.

One of the things making a deep impression upon me is the absolute freedom of speech in American schools. The teachers do not dictate their opinions to the students as sometimes happens in Germany. Instead, students

Ursula Sachs from Germany is now attending the Tenafly High School, Tenafly, New Jersey.

are given an opportunity to express their own opinions during discussions. This helps them learn to respect other people and their different viewpoints.

Another thing appealing to me is the close relationship between teachers and students. Students are encouraged to talk their problems over with their teachers as with good friends. The teachers show much more individual interest here than they do in Germany. As soon as a student understands that his teacher takes lively interest in his progress in school, as well as in his development in later life, he is more eager to learn.

I notice that the teachers not only have a close relationship with their students, but they also keep in constant touch with the parents by open-houses, public meetings, and discussions. In this way, the parents are given the opportunity to make decisions in matters of reform in school life. While in the United States there is a certain tie between family and school life, German teachers give very little attention to their student's private life.

I should say that the main difference between American and German schools is that American schools aspire to develop in all students the attitudes and knowledge necessary for a well-balanced life, while the goal of the German schools is to give a thorough training in all academic subjects to those students who are preparing for the University. The number of subjects taken by American students seems amazingly low to me. In Germany, fourteen subjects are compulsory, and we must concentrate on attaining much knowledge if we are to meet the requirements of the University. The American student takes only four to six subjects. Each student may choose his subjects to meet his particular need and interest. Many choose subjects which will prepare them for a job immediately upon graduation, while others select courses which will prepare them for entrance into colleges or universities. So while German students are compelled to spend most of their time in mastering their subjects, American students can spend time in extracurricular activities where cultural as well as physical training is emphasized. Besides all this, much emphasis is laid on how to be a good citizen and how to get along in later life. American students, therefore, learn how to use their common sense, which is being trained in discussion, while German students study facts without wondering why they are—just memorizing them. I do not object to the less serious scientific study in American schools; in fact, I think that American students have a much more enjoyable time in school than Germans have. I do think, however, that there should be more emphasis on language in American schools. In Germany, three or four languages are compulsory, and I don't think that we shall ever regret having studied them. I should have never been able to visit your country if I hadn't had five years of English. Only this fact enables me to have this wonderful experience in studying things about America from first-hand information.

Finally, I should like to make another suggestion closely connected with the study of languages. Why don't American schools teach more about foreign countries — their people, their customs, and their history? Only an

understanding of other nations prevents wars and works for world peace. An International Course could be added in all American schools.

Despite little things I have to criticize in American ways of education, I can assure you that during the five months of my stay here I have been impressed by the highly developed school system you have and by the great individual care you take of your students. I hope that upon my return to Germany I will be able to take back many good ideas for the improvement of our school system.

Presentation by YVONNE PFEFFER:

IF only a year ago anybody would have told me that one happy day of February I would give a talk in the great Commodore Hotel of New York, I certainly wouldn't have believed him. But once you are on Uncle Sam's lap, anything can happen. And here I am, talking with you about education in America and in France from which I came six months ago. Now, I know by personal experience that talks about that subject are often boring and too long, so I will do my best to make it as short and as clear as possible.

I was asked to compare the opportunities of education in America with those in France. About that there is absolutely no difficulty; no other country gives to her youth what America gives so generously to us. I feel that I can judge because, although I am not even seventeen, I have travelled quite a bit. Nowhere in Europe as well as in North Africa did I find so much freedom in every phase of education as I have here.

In France, a child starts regular school at the age of six after one year spent in kindergarten, called "La Maternelle." After six years of successful public school, he is ready to enter high school which, by the way, is not compulsory. However, in order to be admitted in a "Lycee" (classic high school) where Latin and Greek are studied, or in a "College Moderne" (high school where Spanish and English are taught among other subjects), he has to pass a rather hard exam.

The French student is not so fortunate as the American. He can't pick out his subjects or drop them. He is required to take the following subjects: French, English, Spanish, geography, history, sciences, art, gym, music, algebra, and geometry (Oh! this geometry, it was so boring that I shall never forget it.)

For instance, here is how things went on in my high school. We attended school from 8:00 A. M. till 12:00 M. Then we went home for lunch and came back to school at 2:30 P. M. till 4:30 P. M. Altogether, we had six hours of regular school plus three hours home-work every day. We got a report card which was mailed to the parents every three months. On this report card were the marks of the tests during the term and also personal remarks and comments from every teacher about the personality and attitude of the student during that period of time. At the end of the school year, immediately before

Yvonne Pfeffer from France is now attending the Weequahic High School, Newark, New Jersey.

the start of the summer vacation, there was a big prize-giving, given to the best students of the year. To them, the principal or sometimes even the Lord Mayor of the city would give their prizes—usually a beautiful book—would shake their hands and kiss both cheeks of the girls—this is done a lot in France you know!

Another important fact is that in public schools as well as in high schools girls and boys don't attend the same building. Also, girls are allowed neither to have make-up on, nor to wear slacks in school. As you can well imagine with no make-up and no boys, the hours pass by a little bit slower than they do here; but they are richer in work accomplished. For example, when we came to school in the morning, we would go to our classes and sit still till the teacher came; then we would all stand up in silence, and sit down only after we had her permission. We had to watch ourselves because French teachers distribute "F's" very generously; you can get an "F" for many reasons: because you were not attentive, because you were buzzing around, because you had forgotten your homework or textbook, *etc.*; . . . We hadn't the right to give an original opinion and discuss the subject we were talking about. By that, I mean that nowhere was I allowed to criticize or question reasons as I may here. Only one person could talk, and that was the teacher who, alas, was always a woman!

Her word was absolute law. Thus, the personality of the student was killed rather than allowed to come to the surface. You may think that under such a strict regime, school is almost an impossible affair—well it is not, because the pupils are trained from childhood to act that way and, believe me, it is not so completely wrong for, taught that way, the student knows how to behave and act in a society later on.

After six years of high school, the student may, if his career requires it and if he can afford it, go to a University. That is all.

Now, maybe you can see why I wanted so much to come to the U. S. A. For me, school is a paradise here; not only can I choose and learn the subjects I like, but I am also able to take important secretarial majors which will be very useful to me when I'll take a job.

In conclusion, I will say and I mean it, that there is no other country which has so much to offer as America. However, there is one small thing on which I don't agree: I personally think that too much freedom is given to the American student; he is so spoiled by good teachers, good schools, good principals, and too many liberties that he takes everything for granted and doesn't appreciate enough the wonderful opportunities offered to him. But beside that fact, all is marvelous here and you are all to be warmly congratulated for having made of our nation a strong and powerful country through her opportunities of education. I sincerely hope that in the future she will be even stronger and more powerful because now I am no longer a French girl; the very day I came here, I became a new niece of our great Uncle Sam. I am very proud to be one and I am decided to remain it.

Presentation by SHIRO MATSUOKA:

I ARRIVED in the United States on August 15, 1950, unable to speak English. You cannot imagine the thrill I had as I sailed into the Golden Gate and watched the skyline of San Francisco. One of the greatest ambitions of my life had been fulfilled. Another great surprise was the ride for two days and nights by fast train across the United States. This country is so big, and I am finding out, so great.

So much for that for the present. Let's look at some of the advantages of the American secondary school as compared with that of my homeland, Japan. In Japan, we have a basic educational course for all students up through the eighth grade and there it divides. The very select few who have both ability and money are selected to prepare for the University and the professions. The other group is directed into the vocational school system—but here again it is on a tuition basis. This, as compared to the free public schools provided for all youth in America, is so different. In our schools, every course is selected for us. In America, boys and girls have an opportunity to select courses according to their needs, their interests, and their abilities. After the completion of the elementary school, the boys and girls in Japan are divided and they go their separate ways. There is, therefore, little understanding between the two groups. You in America provide co-education, and here boys and girls understand each other and get to know each other better; therefore, the position of girls, and later the ladies, is far more important in society.

In our secondary schools, nearly every course is a lecture or recitation course, based entirely upon the memorization of facts. Here in America, I have found the classroom procedure quite different. In my classes, we have discussions, opportunities to apply our information, practice in seeing how it works, and an opportunity to observe some of its useful attributes as well as to go on excursions for additional observation. It really is so much more meaningful and provides a better incentive for future study.

There is a great difference in the relationship between pupils and teachers. The position of the teacher in Japan is one of absolute authority. There is little friendliness or understanding between the Japanese teacher and the Japanese student. Here is where I found one of the greatest differences in America. Everyone has been so friendly, so understanding. Teachers and pupils plan together. My classes, in many cases, are run on a co-operative basis, and in others the teacher appears to be one of a family instead of a person with absolute authority.

There is another great comparison. Prior to 1948, we had a total nationalistic system in Japan, with every direction coming from the Ministry of Education in Tokyo. The people, the parents, and the community had no opportunity to express that they wanted or how it should be taught. That I find very different in America. I have seen and observed several groups where

Shiro Matsuoka from Japan is now attending Tenafly High School, Tenafly, New Jersey.

the parents actually discussed things that are being done in the school. They expressed their points of view, and the teachers, principal, and parents plan together, with the local board of education being the final authority for the school system.

Furthermore, in Japan our schools stress factual information or vocational preparation. In America, I find that the first and foremost stress is upon good citizenship so that they may apply it in the life of the school, of the community, and of the nation. In my short time here, sometimes, I must say, I am surprised at the lack of appreciation that boys and girls have of such a privilege.

May I take a minute to point out the highlights that I have observed in the short time that I have been in the United States. I would list them as follows: *first*, the respect for the individual in the American schools regardless of race, or color, or creed, or financial status; *second*, the stress that is placed upon citizenship training as well as the preparation for additional educational or vocational goals; *last*, the freedom of the American schools and of the American people. Oh, what the boys and girls of Japan would do if they could have such opportunities.

Finally, it is my hope and desire that our educational system in Japan, as it has been slowly reorganized since 1947 with the co-operation of America, may provide all the boys and girls of New Japan with some of the many rich opportunities that are just taken for granted by the youth of America.

Presentation by MICHAEL GNOUTCHEFF:

I WENT to France when I was eleven years old. Before that time, I had been in Yugoslavia and Germany, but that was during the war and all the schools were closed, so my first senior school career began in France. When I arrived, I did not speak a single word of French, so my parents decided to put me in a French private school. They thought, and with reason, that it was the best way to pick up the language. The first day was awful. The young French generation is not so considerate to foreigners as young Americans. They did many unkind things, such as laughing and playing tricks on me. Little by little, I got used to the atmosphere. However, it wasn't very cheerful. The private school, though not supported by the State, was considered to be very good. On the other hand, the teachers were not of a very good selection. If you annoyed them, you were often slapped and treated roughly. As an example, I saw one boy receive thirty blows because he didn't do an assignment. Truly enough, he was a nuisance, but the sadistic way he was punished should never be used. After a while, my parents transferred me to the Lycee, the State high school. It was well equipped with books and other items of instruction. There was a good physical education department. The teachers were very intellectual and chosen from the best.

Michael Gnoutcheff from Yugoslavia and France is now attending the Nyack High School, Nyack, New York.

A Lycee is very good if you are a genius or studious. You can acquire a great deal of knowledge. If you do not keep up in your work, it is just too bad for you. Teachers are stiff and they do not have a personal interest in their students. They act as if they were superior beings. Instead of helping you a little when you do not understand, they simply let you go so as not to disturb the progress of their program. Individual help presents a difficult situation because all teachers have to cover much material and teach large classes. A few teachers would have given individual help but just could not sacrifice the class for a few. Consequently, some students became sick and tired of the school, and learning in general. They behaved themselves perfectly before the teacher but behind his back they would be noisy and disrespectful. This hypocrisy and lack of consideration were the results of this indifference to the school in general. About a third of the class, the serious minded, did graduate. Those who did so were very well educated and had much culture. If you passed the Baccalaureat, the examination you took before entering the University, you were considered very intellectual and with much respect.

Even some of the "bad eggs" would pick up enough knowledge and discipline to help them become respectable citizens.

In 1941, my family came to the United States of America. I left the school in France without regret though I did dislike to leave some good friends. Here, again, I had the problem of acquiring a new language and getting used to new surroundings. I entered an American high school with almost the same feeling I had when entering the French school. I had the same handicaps, and I could only pray for a better "Alma Mater." I was afraid. I was not sure of the way the students would welcome me. My previous experience made me suspicious. When I entered the principal's office, I contracted myself; I was ready for anything. One glance dispelled my fears. The principal indicated that he wanted only to help me: that he was not a stiff-necked administrator but a friend. It was even hard to believe that he was the principal. After a few days, I calmed down and gained more assurance. The students were very co-operative and did not seem to notice my bad English. They corrected and helped me, and I am very grateful to them. Soon I saw that they seldom laughed at you and, if they did, they meant no disrespect. It was a laugh that invited you to do the same. That, I was told later, is the American sense of humor—to laugh with somebody instead of laughing at him.

The teachers were most co-operative and indulgent. They talked slowly and tried very hard to help me. At first, I was a little bit shocked at the way the students behaved with the teachers. They were so friendly, but I think it is very good. It develops good student-teacher relations and a better mutual understanding.

The five-subject system is better than the French ten or twelve system. Taking the same subject every day, it is easier to remember the material covered in class the previous day. In the Lycee, for instance, we had most subjects for two or three years but only three times a week. In general, I

like the American system more. I am progressing better here. This, of course, is my personal opinion. It may be wrong, but my experience clearly shows that I learn more in the U.S.A. educational system. Truly enough, it may lack extensive drill in general knowledge. I also think that students should not choose their subjects so freely because they sometimes make mistakes and discover them too late.

I would like to conclude by saying that one of the best points I can make to indicate the difference between the French high school and the American high school is that a student leaves the cold institution, called the Lycee, without any regrets. Here, a student finishes high school, happy that he has passed the work but unhappy to leave teachers, students, and other associations of his high-school life. This spirit is one of the greatest tributes I can pay to the American high school.

Presentation by ROSE MARIE ZIRPEL:

SEVERAL days ago, I saw a cartoon in a newspaper. This picture led us into a classroom where a group of children were sitting behind their desks. Each had a hole in the middle of his head. The teacher, a very serious man, was pouring certain amounts of information through a funnel into each child's head. Yes, that was the idea of education in olden times. Many people thought that the person who acquired the most facts was the best educated. But times have changed. Schools have been greatly reformed.

I don't know whether America's youth have more opportunities than we have in Germany, but definitely they have different ones. Let me select what I think is the main difference between the two schools. In Germany, the main purpose of the high school is to teach us knowledge; we are being prepared for the University. In America, you strive for more than this. One of the main objectives of the American high school is to teach students how to become good citizens. In every subject—it does not make any difference what kind of subject it is—you teach democracy. No, the American students do not have to learn as much subject matter as we do, but they learn much more about citizenship and human relations.

Why do they learn more about human relations? I will tell you. I was greatly impressed by this when I came to America. First, they learn more of human respect because of the relationship between teachers and students. Here teachers are friends. Right? The student may go to them and talk over problems. They take interest in students as individuals. Advisers assist each class. One can go to them and talk about his later life, get suggestions for jobs, and get in touch with colleges. The guidance office is another place where the students can go for advice. In Germany, it is very different. We really have two bodies in school: the faculty and the students. They don't understand each other. Students don't see teachers as friends, and they are often

Rose Marie Zirpel from Germany is now attending the Tenafly High School, Tenafly, New Jersey.

right. Now we are trying to co-operate, but it goes slowly. When I say this, I speak of the schools I attended and of those in general.

Another reason why American students learn more about human relations is that the schools have co-education. We do not have it in Germany, and since I have been in America I realize that it is more important than I ever thought before. Since boys and girls are sharing experiences from the very beginning, good relationships exist between them and there is no feeling of embarrassment. And, by the way, one has more fun when boys and girls are together. We have co-education in Germany up to the fourth grade. We tried to incorporate it in the high schools, but it did not work out. I think in order to have it, we must start from the very beginning and carry it through the grades. Also in the co-educational school the student's social life is important. For instance, there are the school dances. Boys and girls are given opportunity and actually encouraged to date. In our school in Germany, if a teacher saw a girl on a date with a boy, she would put the girl on the black list!

The question of who goes to school brings up a third very important difference between German and American schools. In America, everybody who has passed grammar school automatically goes to high school. This is not true in Germany. We have to pass many examinations and go through a whole series of tests. Because of this, only those who are above average in intelligence attend. We can, therefore, learn a lot more in subject matter. But does it give us the best training for later life? I don't know. In later life and in most jobs, we shall have to meet and deal with people of all levels of intelligence. Will there not be a better feeling and a closer understanding among all the people of a country if they share experiences when they are of high-school age? I think so.

I like the many extracurricular activities in the American high schools—the clubs, the sports, the student organizations. In clubs, where people who have the same interests meet, it is possible to learn much. Here students get experience in running their own affairs. They develop a sense of responsibility, they learn to get along with other people, and they have opportunity to practice leadership. Student participation in government is for the school world much as the Federal government is for the United States. Students learn to choose the right person for a job, a very important factor in later life. I wish we could have this opportunity in Germany. We tried to establish a student council in our school; but it did not work for there was opposition from both the students and the teachers.

Finally, I want to mention the freedom here in the American schools. One can say anything he wants to without embarrassment. American students do not seem to appreciate the freedom that they have. Probably they don't realize how much they have, because they have always had it. Nor do they seem to realize the responsibility that goes with this privilege. I think that if they knew how precious this freedom is, they would accept their duties and responsibilities more cheerfully.

These are some of the opportunities that American students have and

which have impressed me. In Germany, we are now adopting many of these ideas. Some work; others don't. I think that if we could take all the good things from the American schools and all the good things from the German schools and put them together, we should have more ideal schools in both America and Germany.

Presentation by BRANISLAW GARGULINSKI:

I WOULD like to tell you what trials many of the children of Europe must undergo before they can become one of you — an American.

My education began in Tarnopol, Poland, when I was five years old, and the Russian police took my family to Siberia where we lived for two years as unfortunate prisoners of Russia.

My father gained his freedom from Russian rule by joining the Polish army under the leadership of General Sikorski, who organized an army of Polish prisoners of Russia and led them to Iran. My mother, sister, and I were given permission to join my father in Iran, but we missed him by a few days and were sent to India where we lived for six years while my father was traveling with the 18,000 members of "The Famous Second Division of the Polish Army in Italy." General Sikorski was killed in a plane accident and the army, led by General Sikorski's assistant, General Anders, was sent to England. In 1947, the army broke up. Some families went to Canada, some to Argentina, and some to the United States.

With the assistance of the Polish army, our family was reunited in England. Then, with the help of my aunt in the United States, we were able to reach our goal — America — where I am now living the life of a happy American schoolboy.

Why am I happy? Let me tell you.

I attended school in Karachi, India, sitting on a stone in a tent listening for five hours a day while a teacher lectured. All families lived together and ate in one room. Then for five years, I went to school in a barracks in Bombay, working in rooms where the heat was almost unbearable, the walls so thin that every sound made in any room was heard throughout the school. We sat at tables on very uncomfortable stools. A set of books was shared by five pupils, a writing tablet had to last for three months. Each family was given money to buy food, but try as our mothers might, we could not buy enough to keep any of us from feeling hungry much of the time. You wish to know why I'm happy now?

In America, we have attractive, quiet rooms, comfortable desks and chairs, good lighting, blackboards, book cases containing many fine books, and we have all the writing materials we need.

I studied my lessons in India — lessons which included algebra and geometry, geography which dealt with world problems, history of Poland, and sci-

Branislaw Gargulinski from Poland and Russia is now attending the James J. Ferris High School, Jersey City, New Jersey.

ence. I completed my grammar school course in six years. Then I joined my father in England, ready for a secondary school.

I spent a year in England where I was introduced to comic books. I would have liked to attend a private school in England, but education there is very expensive and my father could not afford to send me to one. So I was put in a grammar school. Education in England is not, to my way of thinking, on as high a plane as American education. However, I must have accomplished more than I realized for after six months I was admitted to the Polish Technical School where I was selected to serve as an officer.

My first day in an American high school was one of great enjoyment. The teachers and pupils called it "Orientation Day." Teachers made us feel welcome, the band played familiar tunes, pupils sang, cheerleaders cheered. This was all new to me. We were welcomed by our principal. Our vice-principal, who speaks Polish extremely well, was very helpful and pleasant. My greatest pride is a clarinet which was given to me in school. I am now being taught to play it. I think my teachers like me, they want me to succeed. I have a fine opportunity for success here where a spirit of friendship exists between teachers and pupils. I appreciate the great difference between the friendship given me here by American children and those in other parts of the world.

I am enjoying the freedom which the children in American schools enjoy. Our principal describes it as freedom with self-control under teacher supervision. I think freedom from fear is a glorious thing. The amount and different kinds of school materials given to children in America is something new and wonderful to me. I like to stand and look over the many kinds of food served in our cafeteria every day. How wonderful to be able to buy a hot meal for thirteen cents. I look forward to belonging to one of the many clubs which we have in our school. The teachers and students seem glad and happy to be in my school. I feel proud and happy to be among them. Yes, I am happy and thankful to be here in America, a dreamland to so many of my friends in Poland.

Conclusion by BURT JOHNSON:

AFTER hearing these boys and girls express their opinions concerning our schools, the opportunities that our boys and girls have, and the freedom that they are privileged to enjoy, perhaps it's time for us, as leaders in American secondary schools, to take stock and think of the fortunate situation that we are in. (The meaning of our word America flows from a pure source and is ably expressed by Herbert Hoover when he said: "Within the soul of America is the freedom of mind and spirit in man. Here alone are the open windows from which pours the sunlight of the human spirit. Here alone human dignity is not a dream but a major accomplishment.") If we can but help all American youth in these days of trouble, distress, bigotry, and even idolatry, to know and understand better the moral and spiritual quality which rise alone in free men, we will have made our greatest contribution to the future of America.

I also think of how Sanskrit expressed it, when I think of the international situation today: "Walk together, talk together, O ye people of the earth; then and only then shall ye have peace."

Finally, may I impress upon you that education is the hope of youth, youth is the hope of democracy, and democracy is the hope of the world.

The International Scholarship Program for High-School Students from Germany

George H. Edgell, Jr., Director of Program, American Field Service, New York, New York, discussed the program of the American Field Service and outlined their activities for next year.

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Luncheon Meeting

Tuesday, February 13, 12:15 P. M., Parlor C

PRESIDING: *H. Pat Wardlaw*, Assistant Commissioner for Instruction and Planning, State Department of Education, Jefferson City, Missouri, President.

This was the annual meeting of the National Association of Directors and Supervisors of Secondary Education in co-operation with the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

State Secondary-School Accreditation Problems

EARL HUTCHINSON

INTRODUCTION

AS an ex-state Director of Secondary Education, it gives me a great deal of pleasure and a sort of returning-home feeling to meet with you again. From the vantage point of three years in the U. S. Office of Education, I have become increasingly aware of the strategic position in American education that personnel of state departments of education occupy. National leaders can help set sights and co-ordinate philosophy and aims; but translating theory into action is a state function. State education officials determine to a large extent the quality and type of educational opportunities in their confines. I feel that progress in secondary education in the various states rests largely in the effort of you who are assembled here.

The topic I propose to discuss is titled, "State Secondary School Accreditation Problems." The word "accreditation" may need clarification. To some persons it means standards which must be met by a school before its graduates are permitted to enter without examination an institution of higher learning. However, I have chosen to let it include all requirements which states exact of their secondary schools. Thus, it would contain the connotations of other terms used in the various states, such as standardization, approval, or classification. These terms are employed rather indiscriminately, but all concern standards which states have established for their secondary schools.

Today, I would like to lay out briefly this whole question of state requirements for secondary schools. I would like also to point out what appear to be inconsistencies and unscientific conclusions in some of our current practices. And lastly, I would like to suggest a program of action. Following this presentation, I hope there will still be time for you to react to what is almost a challenge.

Earl Hutchinson is Specialist for State Relations, Division of Elementary and Secondary Schools, U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington D. C.

ARE THESE COMMON EXPERIENCES?

As a member of a state department of education, part of my duties consisted of making certain that state laws and department regulations were observed in the high schools of the various communities. I wonder if you haven't had some experiences similar to mine? Let me tell a few.

I remember one hard-boiled, veteran superintendent of schools. He was the kind who prided himself on his common sense, liked to express himself vigorously, and reveled in being an "off-horse." I had occasion to call his attention to deficiencies in the laboratory and library equipment of his high school. Our department had a regulation that a minimum of \$75 should be expended annually for each of these areas; this had not been done in his school. I visited him one day and pointed out that the approval of his school was in jeopardy because he had not taken care of the matter. He snorted, "All you fellows in the State House want us to do is spend money. Our high school has enough books, has enough laboratory equipment. In fact, we have too much, because the teachers don't use what they've got. What's the sense in buying more materials when the teachers don't know how to use what they already have?" After some talk, he finally broached this proposition. The pupils of the school had been earning money through selling magazines to buy a motion picture projector for the school. That would cost about \$300. Why couldn't I (the State) call that expenditure a substitute for laboratory and library requirements for two years, since the motion picture projector would be used to show films on science and literature? . . .

After the last war ended, our state began tightening up on some standards that had not been stringently enforced. One of these concerned the number of days that a school must be in session during the year. In a series of regional meetings for school officials, I reviewed the items required for approval of secondary schools. I explained and interpreted the laws and regulations about the length of the school year. Thirty-six weeks meant positively 180 days of school. But the principals and superintendents began quizzing me, looking for loopholes. For example, on a legal holiday, school may be closed and the day counted as a day present. So one ingenious soul asked this question, "Suppose our school board votes to maintain school on Armistice Day. Since it is a holiday and counts as a day present even though school is not in session, can we hold school on that day and have it count as two days present—one for the actual day in attendance and one for the holiday?" Another asked this: "Washington's birthday falls on Saturday. If our school board declares that school be maintained on this particular Saturday, can we then observe the holiday and count it as a day present?" Some of the questions had me backed to the wall with legal entanglements that would have baffled a Philadelphia lawyer. I was very happy to get a breathing spell when a little old grey-haired lady in the back of the room in one of the meetings stood up and asked if she could have the floor a minute. When I nodded, she said something like this. "Gentlemen—I am not a school official of this state. In fact, I have been only

a classroom teacher and employed in another state; but I have returned to this my native state for my retirement. I thought I would come to this meeting to see what was going on in respect to schools. Then I find you leaders in education bickering and scheming on how to evade a school attendance law designed to give boys and girls more education. The law is clear — 180 days of school. It seems to me that you should be trying to figure out how to get more schooling for children rather than less. Frankly, I am disgusted and ashamed of what I have seen and heard" and out she went — a spry, vigorous, bird-like woman. There was silence from the group for a while. No more questions were asked about those legal evasions of the law. We went on to another subject. . . .

Then there was a high-school principal who submitted a class schedule which provided only 38-minute periods. Immediately I wrote to him and asked why, since he must know that the minimum length of period was 40 minutes. He wrote back that an approved secondary school was required to operate only 180 days. However, if I would study his schedule, I would find that his school operated 40 weeks. Therefore, the two minutes that he was short in each period was more than compensated for by the extra number of weeks the school operated. As long as his total time met requirements, why wasn't it possible to make a schedule that fitted local needs as he saw them? . . .

I remember one of our principals who pioneered a work-experience program. He had about thirty boys and girls who spent three complete afternoons a week on a job. He had a teacher who visited the factories and businesses where these youth were placed, although this was not a diversified occupations course. There were close working arrangements between the school and the place of employment. There was some effort to relate work in school to the jobs. Then the question of how much graduation credit should be given for this program reared its ugly head. Should the same credit be given as for shop — double period equal one credit? If that formula were used, these youth would receive much more credit than ordinary shop pupils, because they remained on the job until 5 *p.m.* Since the learning experiences were real and planned, one could support that thesis. On the other hand these boys and girls were poor academic students for whom the principal was trying to find something of value. How would other pupils feel when they learned that these poorer students were receiving two or three graduation units for working? On what basis could one justify a formula that three hours (or any number of hours) of work experience equals one graduation unit? . . .

I mention these experiences because I am quite sure that you, in your respective capacities as state officials concerned with state standards for high schools, have had similar ones. These problems have caused me to wonder about the validity and even the sense of some of our state regulations.

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN TRANSITION

As secondary schools have enrolled a larger and larger per cent of the nation's youth, the purposes of secondary education have been broadened to meet

the needs of all boys and girls. Today's high school aims to develop better home members, citizens, and workers,—not merely to prepare pupils for gaining admission to a college or university. To perform this larger task, different courses of study and teaching methods are necessary; considerations must be given to each individual, regardless of his socio-economic status, aptitudes, or interests; and the organizational structure of the school requires modification in order to fit the many needed learning experiences into a total program.

Standards established for accrediting schools for college preparation served their purpose well when that was the chief task of the school. However, as secondary schools move forward to implement their wider aims, some of the standards employed may be found inapplicable to current purposes of secondary education and inconsistent with present scientific knowledge about how people learn. Static and rigid requirements tend to freeze patterns of education. This should not be in a day of such intensive ferment in education as we are now experiencing. It follows then, that when standards have become outmoded, they should be modified to meet changed conditions. Ideally, they should lead and accelerate the forward progress of education, rather than retard it by setting up unnecessary hurdles.

To meet this situation calls for a long look ahead. The revision of state regulations should be based on both the purpose of standards and on the best we know in education. New standards should not be improvised to fit only a new situation, but should be studied as part of an over-all program. Standards should guarantee and promote better schools; but in so doing, they should reveal a vision of the task ahead and permit diversity and flexibility.

Turning now to an analysis of some current practices, I may not be able to present adequate scientific evidence to support my doubts. However, neither does there appear to be scientific research behind some of the standards commonly employed. The chief reason for bringing this problem before you is to direct attention to the fact that some state regulations seem to be based on assumption rather than on established knowledge; some seem based on an antiquated philosophy of secondary education; and some appear to serve as barriers to rather than accelerators of educational progress.

THE CARNEGIE UNIT

In its first annual report, 1906, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching established the unit principle for admission to college or university. A subject which required five periods per week through the academic year to complete the work became worth one unit. That unit has for more than forty years been the standard on which high-school courses and graduation requirements have been based. Today, a majority of states require sixteen such units for graduation from an approved or accredited four-year secondary school. Three-year senior high school requirements are scaled down proportionally to twelve units.

The number of hours spent in a classroom during a year appears to have an educational sacredness entirely out of keeping with our scientific knowledge of what constitutes a desirable number of class hours. Is it not possible for short-term courses to contribute to a pupil's development? Must a subject be treated forty minutes a day for five days a week for eighteen or thirty-six weeks in order to have educational significance and recognition?

How is it established that four subjects is the correct pupil load? Several states imply that it may not be, by permitting pupils in the upper scholarship levels of the class to take up to five units. Some states allow credit for physical education, which may be counted either toward the required sixteen units or toward a higher standard of seventeen required units for graduation.

On what basis rests the formula that laboratory science or shop work must have double periods to count the same credit as academic subjects which supposedly require outside preparation? Modern educational theory is skeptical about the value of required homework. The longer class period with its attendant supervised study is designed to reduce the amount of assigned home study, and classroom programs are being developed that provide for the growth of pupils as individuals and encourage their voluntary out-of-school follow-up in areas of interest and aptitude.

Variations in school subjects, such as the core curriculum or short courses in first aid, need to be recognized in state standards. How does one arrive at and justify any particular formula for awarding a unit of credit for a planned work experience program? Will the girl gaining her work experience in an office, typing or writing letters, have to repeat that work in the typing class or the business English class? What kind of bookkeeping system will be needed to record credit for the English or Speech activity of a boy who makes a report to a union meeting of the shop where he is getting his work experience? Should work experience gained during the summer vacation months or during the Christmas holidays receive recognition?

The ramifications of these questions are many. How will realistic education be accounted for? We are not ready to drop the Carnegie Unit as a measure, for it is all we have. Yet, there does seem need to make modifications in it that will permit its use in the variety of newer types of school programs.

THE HIGH-SCHOOL DIPLOMA

What should a high-school diploma signify? Will the sixteen customary units continue to be required of everyone, or will a plan be developed which will allow for individual differences? Most educators will agree that there is a wide range of achievement represented in the high-school diplomas awarded members of a single graduating class. This situation was recognized during and after the last war, when most states authorized the issuance of Diploma Equivalency Certificates. These were usually based on a person's General Educational Development as revealed by tests primarily concerned with ability to understand what is read, to apply and interpret data correctly, and

to use facts logically. If the GED tests are valid, they raise an interesting question. Could it be that the regular high-school diploma represents a collection of units based on time serving, whereas the Diploma Equivalency Certificate indicates ability to do what typical high-school graduates are supposed to be able to do—but without having served the time? At any rate, as education becomes evaluated in terms of what people do with their knowledges and skills instead of merely what they know at the moment and how many units they have garnered, and as secondary education truly becomes life adjustment education, concepts of the diploma—its meaning and method of attainment—will probably undergo change.

MORALE OF THE SCHOOL

The matter of the morale of a school appears to be an important consideration of state department of education officials. Almost half the states require that a high school have good morale. In fact, their statements often contain exactly the same phraseology—that the school must have “good general, intellectual, and moral tone”!

How morale can be determined or enforced is a difficult question. I often wonder how many schools have been refused accreditation because of this factor. General and loose statements on the subject are open to various interpretations. Criteria should be established which can be more or less objectively applied by a school visitor, visiting evaluators, or a school staff. Otherwise, the factor should be eliminated. Statements which are merely ornamental should have no place in state standards, however pretty they may sound.

CLASSIFICATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Approximately half of the states classify their secondary schools. However, what classification means varies among states. In some instances it represents size of school; in others the number of years of school work offered. In eleven states, classification symbols indicate a quality of school. Classification is often determined on the basis of the number of courses offered, the certification status of teachers, the equipment in libraries and laboratories, and similar countable criteria. Hence, a Class A school in one state may have an entirely different meaning from a Class A school in another state. Generally, however, schools are rated on mechanical factors which are incomplete in coverage, and which in and of themselves do not necessarily guarantee good education.

For example, requirements concerning school libraries and science laboratories deal primarily with quantitative elements. In relation to libraries, such factors as these are listed by the states: the number of volumes of books, accessibility and convenience of location, training of librarians, expenditures per pupil enrolled in school, number of magazines and newspapers, size of reading room, books catalogued by Dewey Decimal system, type and quantity of furniture, reference material, attractive appearance, and instruction in use. The number of volumes of books is generally specified according to the size of the school—the larger the school, the larger number of volumes per pupil required; the smaller the school, the smaller number required. The

same condition holds when library requirements are based upon expenditures of money.

All but one of these factors are mechanical features emphasizing the adequacy of the library rather than its use. Since most states maintain detailed lists of library standards, their value to improved education should be weighed. Although facilities and books are important, the place of the library in the instructional program of the school is more important. A meagre library that is the heart and soul of a school is more educative than a beautiful, well-stocked one which actually serves only a small fraction of the student body and which is isolated from the life stream of the school program.

Similarly, most states have specific lists of required laboratory equipment, although several merely state that the laboratory must be "adequate" to the science courses offered. Typical of the standards are: sufficient equipment for the sciences offered, up-to-date equipment, first-aid kit available, gas, running water, fume hood, sink, adequate storage facilities, yearly inventory, tables, equipment for individual experimentation, and required annual expenditures per pupil.

These standards mark an effort to ensure sufficient science equipment in each school to meet instructional needs. This desire is commendable, but local school officials may well question whether such standards achieve their purpose. Too often, the standards of equipment are based upon typical college preparatory science courses, and do not fully recognize that core courses may use more simple apparatus than more formal courses, that small high schools may well have only general and practical courses, that home-made equipment may both serve the purpose and also provide excellent learning experiences, or that pieces of scientific equipment may be borrowed for an occasion from local industries. It seems that the determination of what constitutes necessary science equipment should be based on the purposes of the curriculum, and that the accessibility and use of such equipment should be considered more important than merely possessing it.

MARKING SYSTEMS

A dozen states offer suggestions for giving grades to pupils. These are traditional in approach and suggest such devices as a five-point marking system, the use of a three-letter system, or a minimum seventy per cent passing grade. Little is mentioned of the fact that pupils are not fairly marked when pitted against each other in achievement in all fields of work, or that they should compete with themselves in terms of their own aptitudes and efforts. Little is said about pupil progress and more significant reports to parents. It seems that this area is in need of greater consideration by the states, so that local secondary-school people will be encouraged and helped to develop more adequate marking and recording practices. In contrast to the recommended marking practices, almost all states have a modern concept of pupil cumulative records.

TEACHER CERTIFICATION

All states except Massachusetts require certification of secondary-school teachers for their recognized schools. A few states make provisions that at least seventy-five per cent or eighty per cent of the teachers of a school meet the standards for the highest type of state certificate. Practically all states require four years of college and a certain number of hours in professional education courses, ranging from twelve to twenty-four. In more than a third of the states, secondary-school teachers are certificated by subject areas only in which they may teach. Twenty-three states require that school administrators have a special preparation for the job.

There seems to be some danger that teacher certification practices may retard curriculum change. Certification requirements should be so framed as to permit and encourage the development of new high-school subjects which bring together useful units from perhaps several traditional subjects. Preparation for teaching functional courses may be better served by a broad background than by intensive study in a narrow subject field.

Provision should also be made for use of the human resources of a community. Certification requirements should not prohibit the employment of a local television expert, for example, to help out in a school for a few days in the year. This does not mean that tradesmen should substitute for teachers, but that they may be employed to supplement with their special skills the classroom teacher's efforts, or to give short intensive units of a practical nature.

Considerable latitude is given by states to the kinds of professional education courses required of teachers. In some states, however, prescribed education courses are mandatory. On this point, it seems advisable to consider what kinds of education courses should be expected of teachers. Is a three-hour course in the history of education basic to teaching mathematics? What are the realistic, pertinent, minimum fundamental education courses needed by the beginning teacher? What additional courses to meet advanced or longer term certificates are desirable? What content matter should education courses possess that will help the teacher to better performance? Should certification requirements, which are aimed at improving teaching, be divorced from degree requirements? Does the premium on degrees as stepping stones to higher or supervisory or administrative posts prevent educators from taking studies pertinent to their immediate work? It seems reasonable to suggest that an able teacher should be encouraged to continue as a classroom teacher, and that her program of advanced study and higher certification should aim at the status of master-teacher, not a doctoral degree. Should not teaching certificates recognize different kinds of personalities, and not certify a person to teach or supervise or administer a school system just because he has studied certain courses or obtained a particular degree?

SUMMER SCHOOLS

State standards for summer schools on the secondary-school level are generally tied to those of the academic year and to the Carnegie Unit formula. This is perhaps due to the fact that summer schools were originally organized

to serve delinquent pupils who wished to make up incurred deficiencies.

A new concept of summer program has emerged. It includes farm work, art, sports, technical training of various kinds, the development of individual interests and hobbies, camping, and almost any activity of educational significance. It will tend to supplement the regular school year with learning experiences which cannot then be secured by pupils. Classes will be held in places other than school buildings, as well as in them; schedules will be flexible; instruction for short periods of time will be common; and the particular needs of pupils who remain in the community during the summer months will be given preference. Teachers will be engaged for twelve months with one month's vacation with pay. Their summer activities would include teaching, supervising recreational programs, working on curriculum revision, attending summer schools themselves, and traveling. If this kind of program is to become an integral part of our educational system, present State standards for summer programs need careful scrutiny.

MISCELLANEOUS

A variety of other requirements have been established in the different states. Let me call to your attention a few of the more common ones. *State adoption of textbooks*, especially when schools are limited to a restricted list, is open to question on the grounds that pupil's resources would be correspondingly restricted. *Correspondence courses*, even in the states where they are recognized for credit, have specific restrictions on their use. Without contending that there should be no limitations, one can assert that inflexible ones may prevent certain schools from meeting needs of their youth. *Pupil-teacher ratio* is generally restricted to 30-1. On what basis this figure was reached is hard to determine, for it does not actually prohibit large classes. Neither does it recognize that 100 or more pupils at a time can be well taught in certain areas of common learnings with the help of audio-visual aids and a non-typical class organization. When *class size* is limited by regulation, it should be realized that there is very little scientific evidence on what constitutes desirable class size. *Adequate supervision* must be furnished local schools according to the requirements of some states. This appears to be an unrealistic and unenforceable qualification in the light of modern concepts of supervision. Principals may be prevented from scheduling too many classes for themselves and they can be required to maintain records of the number of their class visits, but all personalities cannot supervise in the same manner.

THE SURFACE HAS BEEN SCRATCHED

I have handed you many perplexing questions. I have had to limit my discussion to more or less destructive criticisms, because I don't know the answers. I guess none of us know them. However, the very fact that we recognize problems is the first step toward solution. I believe no state has pioneered in radically new procedures in respect to accreditation. Yet, there seems to be a tendency to place more emphasis on programs of school improvement than upon sets of arbitrary standards. Here are a few state approaches which to me indicate that a changing viewpoint is developing.

New Jersey uses a report form which both indicates standards and encourages self-appraisal by local high schools. *Florida* uses a similar type of bulletin which consists of a combination of regulations and standards of minimum and advanced attainment. Items checked on the left-hand side of a page are "required"; those on the right, "recommended." From time to time, "recommended" factors are moved over to the other side of the page and become "required." *Wisconsin* provides secondary schools with a check sheet for use by state supervisors, local school administrators and supervisors, boards of education, and others interested in the improvement of the school. *Missouri's* tentative plan includes several sound principles: (1) that nothing in education is ever final; (2) that a maximum of self evaluation on the part of each school and a minimum of inspection by the State will be the way of working; (3) that the failure of an individual school to meet, immediately, all minor requirements should be minimized in favor of the over-all breadth and quality of the school program. *Connecticut* provides the most interesting example of flexibility in the application of standards. Every public high school is automatically approved each year. State officials visit the schools often, and between them, reasonable goals for the year are established by each school and sought to be attained.

CONCLUSION

It seems to me that the subject under discussion is one to which the National Association of Directors and Supervisors of secondary education may well give considerable attention. It concerns the work of all of you. As you travel your state, talking about a life adjustment or real life-centered secondary education, there will be those who claim that state regulations constitute the most serious blocks and obstacles to curriculum change. While this statement may not be entirely true, there is enough truth in it to warrant our putting our own houses in order.

A few years ago, we discussed the feasibility of this Association doing something more than merely meeting annually. It was proposed that we organize study committees—similar to those later established by the Chief State School Officers—to obtain through group effort some solutions to common problems—solutions which could be applied in different detail to fit the different situations in the various states. It seems to me that we might consider this proposition again.

Here are common problems relating to state standards for secondary schools. Most state departments of education are obligated to establish and enforce some kind of minimum requirements. The public often demands an accounting of the quality of its schools. Yet we set up standards difficult to defend educationally. Too often they are based on insufficient knowledge and hinder rather than assist the development of better schools to serve all youth.

Faced with this situation, what could be a more useful step than for us to take one or two, or more of these problems, and get study started on them. Committees from our own membership could co-ordinate the efforts. Granting that we have no funds to pay for committee meetings, a great deal can be

done by correspondence, through meetings by representatives of only two or three states, or at regional meetings. Nor do we have to perform all the research ourselves, because our daily work takes most of our time. Through our contacts with universities maintaining graduate schools, we could encourage doctoral candidates to select one for their theses problems. Committees of state school leaders may become interested in a phase of accreditation requirements. I certainly have heard many high-school principals gripe about our state standards.

Putting in a plug for the U. S. Office of Education, may I call your attention to its annual May Work Conference for personnel of state departments of education. That occasion, it seems to me, offers the possibility for representatives from a few states to work together on one or two mutual problems. There are plenty of valuable resources: many specialists, an extensive education library, and the vast number of other Washington agencies. The results of the findings of any work committee on one of these problems could then be disseminated to all the state departments of education as guides for revision of their own state regulations. Well, I've had my say. Now, what do *you* think about these accreditation problems.

ATTENTION! SCHOOL PRINCIPALS.

The most appealing program at our New York City Convention was the Panel of six foreign students. Records are available giving the actual voices of these six high-school students entitled "Students from Other Lands Appraise Our Secondary Schools."

Records are available in two sizes and speeds; total playing time approximately thirty minutes. All records are plastic and have excellent tone qualities and are packed in plain albums.

Size A—3 twelve-inch (6 sides) records at 78 r.p.m. Size A records may be played on an ordinary phonograph\$8.00 per set

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Order now from:

National Association of Secondary-School Principals
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Annual Business Meeting

Tuesday, February 13, 1951, 4:30 P. M., Parlor B

PRESIDING: *W. L. Spencer*, Professor of Secondary Education, Huntingdon College, Montgomery, Alabama

PRESIDENT Spencer opened the meeting and called upon Secretary Elicker to give a brief review of the activities of the central office in Washington, D. C. Dr. Elicker gave a very brief review of the many activities of the Association and the work of special committees, most of which have been reported to members in special communications or through *THE BULLETIN*. He referred briefly to the financial condition of the Association and stated that the essential parts of the Financial Report from the Auditor would be published in the April issue of *THE BULLETIN*.

POLICY STATEMENTS

Mr. W. E. Buckey, immediate past president, explained the issue facing secondary schools in having groups of students attend meetings during the school year in the name of the school and at considerable distance from the school. Such groups referred to were not under the supervision or control of the school and were carried on by outside organizations. After some discussion the following policy was approved:

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals looks with disfavor on any activity in which the name of the school is used and over which the school does not have direct jurisdiction, supervision, and control.

Mr. James E. Blue, Principal, West Senior High School, Rockford, Illinois, and member of the Executive Committee, presented a proposed Statement on Policy about the induction of school youth. There was lively discussion on several parts of the proposed policy. The Statement of Policy was finally referred to the Executive Committee for final action. The Executive Committee at a meeting that same evening, February 13, 1951, issued the following Statement of Policy:

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals has repeatedly expressed itself strongly in favor of a program of adequate security for our country. Ninety per cent of the members by vote have stated that the most important and needed single essential to our national security is a "strong, healthy, and educated population." Many military leaders concur in this fundamental principle as indicated in the words of General Dwight D. Eisenhower.¹

To neglect our school system would be a crime against the future. Such neglect could well be more disastrous to all our freedoms than the most formidable armed assault on our physical defenses. . . . Where our schools are concerned no external threat can excuse negligence; no menace can justify a halt to progress.

¹ Extract of statement made by General Eisenhower for the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 2 West 45th Street, New York 19, New York, issued October 10, 1950.

WHEREAS, extension of selective service to include all 18-year-old boys in the military service can be justified only by the most critical mobilization needs, and

WHEREAS, Congress has not recognized by formal action that such a critical situation exists, and

WHEREAS, we believe that a large segment of our citizenship is not yet convinced that the international situation demands such drastic action,

WE RECOMMEND:

First, that the present policy of selective service including the 19-25 inclusive age group be maintained;

Second, that the total term of military training and service be no less than 21 months and no more than 30 months;

Third, that the proposed act of Selective Service be terminated not later than June 30, 1954. It is highly desirable that each Congress re-evaluate military needs and redetermine military policy on the basis of those needs;

Fourth, that a committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals be appointed whose function shall be to alert the secondary-school principals of the country to the responsibilities which they must assume in marshalling our educational resources for the effective defence of our country.

ELECTION OF OFFICERS

Dr. E. W. Montgomery, Superintendent, Phoenix Union High Schools, President of Phoenix Junior College, Phoenix, Arizona, and Chairman of the Board of Nominators who are the State Co-ordinators and who make all nominations for elective officers, gave a report of the Board of Nominators' meeting held on Monday afternoon, February 12, 1951. The following officers were submitted in nomination and were unanimously elected:

PRESIDENT: *Joseph B. Chaplin*, Principal, Bangor Senior High School, Bangor, Maine.

FIRST VICE PRESIDENT: *Harold B. Brooks*, Principal, Benjamin Franklin Junior High School, Long Beach, California.

SECOND VICE PRESIDENT: *Joseph C. McLain*, Principal, Mamaroneck Senior High School, Mamaroneck, New York.

Other Members of Executive Committee:

George L. Cleland, Principal, Ingalls Junior-Senior High School, Atchison, Kansas.

Leland N. Drake, Principal, Mound Junior High School, Columbus, Ohio.

Other Officers of the Executive Committee Previously Elected:

W. L. Spencer, Professor of Secondary Education, Huntingdon College, Montgomery, Alabama.

James E. Blue, Principal, West Senior High School, Rockford, Illinois.

Paul E. Elicker, Executive Secretary-Treasurer.

Meeting adjourned.

Financial Statements

of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

To the Finance Committee
National Association of Secondary-School Principals
A Department of the National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Gentlemen:

At your request we have audited the accounts and records of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals for the Fiscal Year ended June 30, 1950.

CERTIFICATE

I hereby certify that I have audited the accounts and records of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, a Department of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C., and in my opinion, subject to the qualifications and comments set forth in the section under "comments" and made a part of this report, the accompanying Balance Sheet and related statements of income, present fairly the position of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals at June 30, 1950, and the result of its operation for the year ended that date.

Respectfully submitted, FLOYD W. BUSH, Certified Public Accountant.

BALANCE SHEET—JUNE 30, 1950

ASSETS		
Cash on hand and in bank.....	\$94,998.59	
Petty cash fund	20.00	95,018.59
Returned checks		78.87
Bills receivable		5,423.37
Inventories	80,556.41	
Less—Reserve for valuation of Bulletins.....	4,574.65	75,981.76
Securities (Listed below).....		105,500.00
Student loans	74.80	
Less—Reserve for losses.....	73.80	1.00
Furniture and fixtures.....	9,752.06	
Less—Reserve for depreciation.....	3,443.13	6,308.93
Total Assets		\$289,612.52

LIABILITIES AND NET WORTH

Bills payable		\$ 9,461.75
Net Worth July 1, 1949, per prior report dated September 27, 1949.....	\$223,567.00	
Deduct—Net Loss for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1950.....	1,512.82	\$222,054.18
Add—Furniture and fixtures adjustment Consumer Education project.....	599.38	
—other Inventory adjustments.....	307.84	907.22
Less—Depreciation adjustment	358.75	
	548.47	222,602.65
Consumer Education Study: Balance of fund June 30, 1950.....		45,569.18
Scholarship Fund: Balance of fund July 1, 1949, per prior re- port dated September 27, 1949.....	12,710.71	
Deduct—Excess of Disbursements over Re- ceipts for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1950	731.77	11,978.94
Total Liabilities and Net Worth.....		\$289,612.52

STATEMENT OF INVESTMENTS

June 30, 1950

Real Estate Loans <i>First Mortgage Real Estate Note, 5%, on property at 5909-11 West Roosevelt Road, Cicero, Illinois, of Herbert G. and Clarice Beck.....</i>	\$ 4,250.00
Stocks <i>One LaSalle Street Company, 5 shares, no par value.....</i>	500.00
Public Utility Bonds <i>Peoria Public Service Company, 5%, due June 1, 1939, (extended to June 1, 1954).....</i>	3,000.00
<i>Peoria Service Company 90 shares.....</i>	450.00
United States Bonds <i>Twelve Federal Land Banks.....</i>	5,000.00
<i>U. S. Treasury, 3% of 1955.....</i>	10,000.00
<i>U. S. Treasury, 2½% of 1960.....</i>	18,000.00
<i>U. S. Treasury, 2¾% of 1959-65.....</i>	13,000.00
<i>U. S. Savings Bonds, Series G.....</i>	52,600.00
Total Value of Investments.....	106,800.00

Seventh General Session

Tuesday, February 13, 8:15 P. M., Ballroom

TOPIC: Television or Radio: An Asset or Liability to Our Schools.

MODERATOR: *George V. Denny, Jr.*, President, Town Hall, Inc., New York, New York.

A radio broadcast: *America's Town Meeting of the Air*. Following is a part of the broadcast that was presented under the auspices of the Rochester Institute of International Affairs:

MODERATOR DENNY:

Good evening, neighbors. Tonight we are happy to be the guests of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, one of the strongest professional organizations in this country, under whose auspices we made our first out-of-town appearance in Cleveland in March of 1939. These are the men and women who are largely responsible for what is taught, and how it is taught, in the high schools throughout our land. A great many of them are already making extensive use of radio in their schools, including *America's Town Meeting of the Air*. A few have begun to use television.

Now the purpose of our program, tonight, is to examine freely and frankly the possibilities of television in the field of education, particularly in our schools. We welcome the counsel this evening of Ralph W. Hardy, Director of Government Relations for the National Association of Broadcasters; Dr. Charles A. Siepmann, Professor of Education at New York University; and General Telford Taylor, counsel to the Joint Committee on Educational Television.

RALPH W. HARDY: (Director of the Department of Government Relations of the National Association of Broadcasters. In 1937 Mr. Hardy joined Radio Station KSL, Salt Lake City, where he served in several capacities, ending as assistant general manager. He was appointed a member of the NAB National Program Managers Committee in 1944. Today Mr. Hardy represents the NAB as both Director of the Department of Government Relations and as a member of the Board of Directors of the Advertising Council. He has recently been appointed a member of the Advertising Advisory Committee of Secretary of Commerce Charles Sawyer.)

Thank you, Mr. Denny. When you witness the singular power of television to make children and adults alike laugh and cry and think and act, you cannot help but be awestruck by the tremendous potentialities of this great new facility of communication. I hope Dr. Siepmann and General Taylor can agree with me that, if educators were to turn their backs on television, they would be literally walking out on the greatest teaching tool ever put in the hands of man.

Looking back for a point of comparison, I believe that far too many of our colleagues in the academic world felt about radio when it appeared, about the way old Scrooge did in sizing up Marley's ghost, "It's humbug. I won't believe it." Radio's apparition, instead of turning out, and I again quote from Scrooge, "as an undigested bit of beef, a blot of mustard, a crumb of cheese,

or a fragment of an underdone potato," has grown to a potent reality, exerting a great force in our way of life.

Now television is here with us, clamoring for understanding, thoughtful attention, and wise application in meeting our needs and wants. Our problem seems to me to be essentially one of how can we put education to work for television. We must not lose sight of the fact that there are no program ideas in camera chains or any of the other electronic devices that are television. These come about only when the creative genius of man gives form, movement, tone, and purpose to visual as well as audible images that themselves have the power to attract and motivate people.

I'm asked the question, "If educators produce good television programs, will local stations and networks carry them?" The answer ultimately rests with the individual licensees of the television stations. These are the people selected by the Federal Communications Commission from among all of the qualified applicants as being best suited to operate their television facilities in the public interest, convenience, and necessity. I think, broadly speaking, the answer would be yes, with accent on good programs.

General Taylor, recently, led a most imposing column of educators in a hearing before the FCC in Washington to request a reservation of television channels to guarantee their opportunity, as educators, to get into television at some future date—say thirty years hence. I join my associates in the commercial broadcasting industry who generally regard such a setting aside and non-use of television frequencies for an extended period of time as a waste of a great national resource, particularly when scarcity looms as such an important factor for the foreseeable future.

It is to be hoped that educators who seriously contemplate the use of television will not take refuge in the philosophy that educational programs must always appeal to small, selective audiences. The basic challenge, as I see it, is not alone how to get more education out of the already highly educated, but rather, more importantly, how to share the blessings of knowledge and enlightenment with all who invest time before a television receiver.

You know I like to think of professors like Dr. Siepmann worrying about their Hooper rating. Somehow or other I fancy that the techniques of education could be much more easily adapted now to television if that kind of worrying had been more a part of the technique of teaching processes through the years.

MODERATOR DENNY:

Thank you, Mr. Hardy. Well, I guarantee your, and Professor Siepmann's, Hooper rating will go up tonight. Our next speaker, a professor of Education and Chairman of the Department of Communications at New York University, is part author of what is known in radio circles as the "Blue Book," issued by the Federal Communications Commission in 1945. We are happy to welcome to Town Meeting, Dr. Charles A. Siepmann.

CHARLES A. SIEPMANN: (A naturalized citizen of the United States, Mr. Siepmann was born in Bristol, England. In 1937 a Rockefeller Foundation fellowship

brought him to this country to study and report on broadcasting over educational stations. Previously he had been with the British Broadcasting Corporation for 12 years. During World War II Mr. Siepmann worked with the O.W.I. and in 1945 he served as consultant to the F.C.C. Since 1946 he has been Professor of Education and Chairman of the Department of Communications in Education at New York University. He is the author of *Radio's Second Chance* and *Radio, Television, and Society.*

I have mixed feelings about television. I don't share the enthusiasm of those who, like General Taylor, think it is a priceless tool of education in our classrooms. For my money, its price is too high.

Its unique power is to dispose of space—to have us all in the front row at a president's inauguration, at a meeting of the United Nations, or whatever. But for classroom purposes this, I think, has only marginal significance. I doubt, moreover, whether television has much to offer schools and colleges that films can't offer with advantages. You can show a film when and where you want it. You can't with television. You can preview films. You can't preview television. Functionally, as well as coast-wise, films, as I see it, have it over television.

Television, in fact, is low on my list of priorities for school and college education. Long before we get it, I want provision made for better teachers, more rigorously trained and better paid. I want smaller classes and more and better equipment for our children's use. I want a profession that men, as well as women, will find it harder to get into and prouder to be in—a profession, too, that allows a man to raise a family without mortgaging his underwear.

When the words we utter about education stem from a deep conviction that it is, in fact, what we now merely say it is—the first condition of an enlightened democracy—we'll have money enough to take television and its high costs comfortably in stride. When national expenditure on drink, and sports, and gambling is less than that on education, instead of three, five, and six times as much, I'll say amen to television. Till then, it seems to me, we have sterner business on our hands. I won't be distracted by the lure of what, at best, I regard as a convenient luxury.

Now when it comes to television as an influence outside the classroom, I have a different song to sing. And here, I guess, I clash with Mr. Hardy. In this context I regard it now, and even more so in the future, as a liability. I see it developing basically because of its cost of operation, as almost exclusively a medium of mass entertainment, with the accent on mass.

It will, in other words, compound all of radio's many felonies; eschew the long-term cultural view in the interest of quick returns on sponsor's money; mirror quality by the quantity of audience response; sell cultural minority short and give art, intelligence, and excellence the silent treatment. Left to itself, commercial television is likely to turn us all into a race physically distinguished by a hyperthyroid look about the eyes and fannies flattened by excessive hours in easy chairs; a nation of passive gapers instead of active intelligences, credulous instead of critical; mass-minded instead of individual;

more and more dependent on outside stimulus and progressively devoid of inward resources. And we shall continue to see our children graduate prematurely to the immaturity of their elders.

Nothing, I believe, will save us from this fate except the reservation of channels in television devoted exclusively to education in the true sense of that word and operated by men and women wholly dedicated to that end. In radio or television or education, I remain convinced that you can't serve God and Mammon. None of us, in the last analysis, can escape that choice.

TELFORD TAYLOR: (Counsel to the Joint Committee on Educational Television. Mr. Taylor has held various legal positions in the Federal Government, ending as General Counsel to the Federal Communications Commission, May 1940 to October 1942. During the first Nuremberg trial, he acted as Deputy to Supreme Court Justice Robert H. Jackson. In October 1946 he succeeded Justice Jackson as Chief of Counsel for War Crimes, a position he retained throughout the Nuremberg trials. He resigned both from that position and from the army on August 15, 1949 with the rank of brigadier general. Mr. Taylor is now practicing law in New York City.)

My view is that television is a tremendous potential asset to education. I stress the word "potential" because I agree with Dr. Siepmann that television programs today contain very little which can be said to have true educational value. I believe that television's value in the schoolroom has already been demonstrated by the fine work being done in the public schools, especially in Baltimore and Philadelphia. But education does not begin and end in the classroom and school television is only part of the total problem of educational television.

I have no doubt that educational programs will find an audience, despite the competition of commercial programs. There is a large potential radio and television audience, and many segments of taste, which commercial programs do not touch. The Hooper and other radio surveys are very enlightening, not only because they tell us how many people listen to particular programs, but because they show that a great many people don't listen to any programs at all, or to very few, I think that educational television will greatly expand the television audience because of its ability to appeal to those who are not listening or watching now.

An educational television program does not have to be announced, or labeled as such, in order for it to have educational value. This very program is a good example. I didn't hear the Town Crier say anything about education, but I hope that it will serve to inform and enlighten in the best tradition of education. Therefore, while I do believe that television will be a most useful adjunct to education, the far more important thing is that education will be a good thing for television.

We need far greater variety, imagination, and breadth of appeal in children's programs which are broadcast in after-school hours, and in the programs broadcast for the general audience in the evening. We need programs especially designed for the agricultural areas and other large, but special groups.

A few months ago, an advertisement, urging parents to buy television sets, attracted considerable public attention, because it suggested that our children

would become dyspeptic and neurotic unless there is a television receiver in the home. I hope we can all agree that it is at least equally important that they do not become neurotic from watching television once the receiver is purchased.

To summarize, my objection to the type of programming we have today on commercial radio and television is not so much an objection to what is there, but to what is not there. For these shortcomings, I don't blame the advertiser or the network executives, but I can't go along with Mr. Hardy because I think these shortcomings are inherent in the whole system of supporting radio and television by commercial advertising.

I think that the establishment of television stations supported by universities or municipalities or foundations offer the most promising way of filling these gaps, and reaching many potential listeners and viewers who find very little of interest in the commercial programs. For these reasons, I support the reservation of television channels for educational use.

At the conclusion of General Taylor's presentation, a general discussion ensued between the speakers on the program and the two panel discussants: Robert J. Landry, Editor of *Space and Time*, original Radio Editor of *Variety*, and Director of the New York University Summer Radio Workshop for the past nine years; and Edwin A. Falk, Counsel for the Television Broadcasters Association and General Counsel to Allen B. Dumont Laboratories, Inc.

Following this the topic was open for general discussion by the audience. A lively series of questions and answers between the platform speakers and the audience resulted.

A complete presentation of all the speeches and the question-and-answer part of the program may be secured by writing your National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington 6, D. C., or Town Hall, New York 18, New York. Ask for a copy of *Town Meeting*, "Is Television an Asset or Liability to Education?" February 13, 1951, 651st Broadcast, Volume 16, Number 42.

Back issues of THE BULLETIN

COPIES of many of the back issues of THE BULLETIN are still available to members at a 50 per cent discount; i.e., 50 cents per copy. Write for a list of the more popular issues that are still available. Address your letter to the

National Association of Secondary-School Principals

1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.,

Washington 6, D. C.

Eighth General Session

Wednesday, February 14, 2:15 P. M., Ballroom

PRESIDING: *W. L. Spencer*, Professor of Secondary Education, Huntingdon College, Montgomery, Alabama; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

The Invocation was given by *Dr. Carl S. Weist*, Community Church at the Circle, Mount Vernon, New York. Music was presented by the Tenafly High School Choir, Tenafly, New Jersey, under the direction of *E. Brock Griffith*. Following this, the officers for the coming year were presented by *Dr. Spencer*. The new President, *Joseph B. Chaplin*, was presented the gavel. *President-elect Chaplin* then presented to *President Spencer* a framed certificate for his meritorious services to the National Association during his term of office in 1950-51.

The 35th Annual Convention was officially closed by the final address of the session, given by Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt.

The United Nations and Youth

MRS. ELEANOR ROOSEVELT

IT'S a great privilege for me to come and talk to you for a few minutes about "The United Nations and Youth." It seems to me that it is very important now for us to realize that the United Nations can only succeed if youth is fully aware of our desire that the United Nations shall succeed. We must begin when our young people are quite young if they are to understand fully what the United Nations means, because some people seem to think that the United Nations just by itself as a name is going to bring us peace. Of course, the United Nations is nothing really but machinery through which the peoples of the world can work to create an atmosphere in which peace can grow. Just having a United Nations isn't going to drop peace upon us like a cloud. We have to do the job, and I think it helps to do the job when we are young.

Now there are certain purely mechanical things that we should learn about the United Nations—the structure of the United Nations. I am astonished half the time at how little people really know about how they can get in contact with people in the United Nations, with their own representatives, and what those representatives are really doing. For instance, I had a letter from someone the other day who said, "I hope you will vote thus and so on certain questions." I had to write back and say, "Well unfortunately, you don't seem quite to understand that we are chosen as a delegation to serve, and then we are assigned to different committees.

"My committee finished its work in December and I have not been in the United Nations since December. I do not vote on questions that come up in

Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt is Chairman of the Commission on Human Rights, Economic and Social Council, United Nations, New York, New York.

would become dyspeptic and neurotic unless there is a television receiver in the home. I hope we can all agree that it is at least equally important that they do not become neurotic from watching television once the receiver is purchased.

To summarize, my objection to the type of programming we have today on commercial radio and television is not so much an objection to what is there, but to what is not there. For these shortcomings, I don't blame the advertiser or the network executives, but I can't go along with Mr. Hardy because I think these shortcomings are inherent in the whole system of supporting radio and television by commercial advertising.

I think that the establishment of television stations supported by universities or municipalities or foundations offer the most promising way of filling these gaps, and reaching many potential listeners and viewers who find very little of interest in the commercial programs. For these reasons, I support the reservation of television channels for educational use.

At the conclusion of General Taylor's presentation, a general discussion ensued between the speakers on the program and the two panel discussants: Robert J. Landry, Editor of *Space and Time*, original Radio Editor of *Variety*, and Director of the New York University Summer Radio Workshop for the past nine years; and Edwin A. Falk, Counsel for the Television Broadcasters Association and General Counsel to Allen B. Dumont Laboratories, Inc.

Following this the topic was open for general discussion by the audience. A lively series of questions and answers between the platform speakers and the audience resulted.

A complete presentation of all the speeches and the question-and-answer part of the program may be secured by writing your National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington 6, D. C., or Town Hall, New York 18, New York. Ask for a copy of *Town Meeting*, "Is Television an Asset or Liability to Education?" February 13, 1951, 651st Broadcast, Volume 16, Number 42.

Back Issues of THE BULLETIN

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National Association of Secondary-School Principals

1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.,

Washington 6, D. C.

Eighth General Session

Wednesday, February 14, 2:15 P. M., Ballroom

PRESIDING: *W. L. Spencer*, Professor of Secondary Education, Huntingdon College, Montgomery, Alabama; President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

The Invocation was given by *Dr. Carl S. Weist*, Community Church at the Circle, Mount Vernon, New York. Music was presented by the Tenafly High School Choir, Tenafly, New Jersey, under the direction of *E. Brock Griffith*. Following this, the officers for the coming year were presented by *Dr. Spencer*. The new President, *Joseph B. Chaplin*, was presented the gavel. *President-elect Chaplin* then presented to *President Spencer* a framed certificate for his meritorious services to the National Association during his term of office in 1950-51.

The 35th Annual Convention was officially closed by the final address of the session, given by Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt.

The United Nations and Youth

MRS. ELEANOR ROOSEVELT

IT'S a great privilege for me to come and talk to you for a few minutes about "The United Nations and Youth." It seems to me that it is very important now for us to realize that the United Nations can only succeed if youth is fully aware of our desire that the United Nations shall succeed. We must begin when our young people are quite young if they are to understand fully what the United Nations means, because some people seem to think that the United Nations just by itself as a name is going to bring us peace. Of course, the United Nations is nothing really but machinery through which the peoples of the world can work to create an atmosphere in which peace can grow. Just having a United Nations isn't going to drop peace upon us like a cloud. We have to do the job, and I think it helps to do the job when we are young.

Now there are certain purely mechanical things that we should learn about the United Nations—the structure of the United Nations. I am astonished half the time at how little people really know about how they can get in contact with people in the United Nations, with their own representatives, and what those representatives are really doing. For instance, I had a letter from someone the other day who said, "I hope you will vote thus and so on certain questions." I had to write back and say, "Well unfortunately, you don't seem quite to understand that we are chosen as a delegation to serve, and then we are assigned to different committees.

"My committee finished its work in December and I have not been in the United Nations since December. I do not vote on questions that come up in

Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt is Chairman of the Commission on Human Rights, Economic and Social Council, United Nations, New York, New York.

committee one. When you want to speak to your representative you must remember that your head representative there is Ambassador Austin, who is your permanent representative on the Security Council and who, when the Secretary of State is not with us, heads the delegation of the United States to the General Assembly; that he has two assistants—one of them Ambassador Gross, who used to be head of the Legal Department in the State Department, and the other, Minister Ross and that they are constantly at the U. S. Mission to the United Nations. The rest of us only serve for the time the delegation is actually working in the General Assembly. I have served from the first on Committee 3, which is the committee that deals with social, humanitarian, and educational matters." The questions that come up in that committee for the future and over the long range are going to be some of the most important things that are done in the United Nations, because when decisions are made on these subjects they create an atmosphere of greater understanding and of greater co-operation. The United Nations is an educational body. We learn each time we serve, something more each time we meet with our colleagues from other nations. We nearly always learn something new. One of the things we need to do is, first of all, teach our young people the ways the United Nations functions. I think we're going to have a good deal of help in this from the United Nations Education Service, which has just been begun. Most of you have already received material on it. This Service will be one way of helping us teach our young people more about the way the United Nations' machinery works, how we can use it, and how we can improve it.

But there's more than that, and I think that what we who have a real opportunity to reach young people should be doing today in the United States is to give them the realization of the greatness of their own country, of the strength of their own country, of its challenge today to lead the world, of what it means for every citizen to accept that challenge, of what it means to be engaged in the struggle in which we are now engaged. We're never going to win that struggle through fear. We're going to win it through self-confidence, through belief in our own institutions, and through work for those institutions. We should know what communism means. I don't believe we shouldn't ever talk about it with young people. I think the more young people really know about communism, the safer they are and the better it is for them to learn when they are with people whom they trust and respect and with whom they can discuss the things they have been told and the things they have heard. We need to approach the whole question of citizenship with our young people—when they are young—as leaders, not as something which will come to them later. They begin to carry their burdens as children. They begin to decide as children what kind of a nation is going to lead the world. There are a great many challenges to this leadership today.

If you work in the United Nations, you are very conscious of the challenges. In the first place, we are a Christian nation and what we do reflects upon what we believe. They see it in our acts, and so we have to remember that we must

live up to the highest ideals of our religions, whatever they may be. And we must have respect at the same time for the religions of other people. I always like to remember how I learned the lesson that it was necessary to know and respect the religions of other people. We worked very hard in the Commission on Human Rights on an article on "Freedom of Religion." We thought we had consulted practically all the major religions and that the wording would be acceptable, until we got into Committee 3, in Paris where 58 nations were represented. Then it came out that the 18 nations in the Human Rights Commission had forgotten to consult the Mohammedans. We had three words to which they objected very strongly; namely, we had said "that people had a right to change their religion or belief." It was only because of that Philip Khan, who is part of the Pakistan delegation and is Foreign Minister for Pakistan, which is the largest Mohammed Moslem State, got up before the whole Assembly and said, "I interpret the Koran differently from the way certain of my colleagues in Committee 3 have done. I interpret the Koran to say, 'He who can believe, shall believe; he who cannot believe, shall disbelieve. The only unforgiveable sin is to be a hypocrite' I shall vote for the Universal Declaration for Human Rights." All but two of the Mohammedan States followed him. Saudi Arabia and little Yenan did not — Saudi Arabia because the delegate happens to be a Christian, but he said that he didn't think the old king of Saudi Arabia would interpret the Koran that way. So he did not go against what he thought would be the old king's belief. It is essential for us to realize that we live in a big country, that we still know very little about our neighbors, that we must begin to learn when we are young, that we must respect the habits and customs of others, that we must respect the many, many things which they know more about than we do, that we must be humble about our own successes because people appreciate more what you have really accomplished if they discover it and you don't thrust it down their throats. One of the things that we need to learn is that we can learn from other people. That is an attitude of mind one acquires in school. One acquires a desire to know about other people. One acquires there the ability to study, to think, to have consideration for the cultures and the feelings of other people. I think that is one of the things about which we can do a great deal in our secondary schools that would mean a great deal to our leadership in the world.

There is another thing which has to begin with our children. It is very hard for us to realize. It is one of the great challenges to our leadership — the fact that our religion teaches the brotherhood of man. We are a nation made up of many races, a people of many religions, many different national origins and still the brotherhood of man does not fully exist among us. The sooner our young people know that reality is something that has to come, the better it will be for our leadership in the world. One of the things which communism promises — we don't know how real it is because we only know what communism promises — but one of the things it promises is the equality of all human beings. Every time there is a failure in our country it is brought out in propaganda all over the world as a failure of democracy — not a failure of

a certain group of people in the United States, but a failure of democracy. It is also looked upon as the failure of the religions for which most of our people stand. We know that communism is a material, almost an economic belief. They brush aside in the discussion on human rights what they call the old rights — the civil and political liberties. They do think it's important that you should have — or they *say* they think it is important that everyone should have a right to share in his government, but in actual fact, of course, no individual in a communist states does anything but ratify what has been decided on because there never is a choice. There is only the one thing that you can possibly do with your vote. But the things they actually stress are the things which they say we of the democracies are wrong in. We believe in these civil and political liberties, but we do not give proper weight to the economic and social rights. Those are the gods of communism, and the reason they appeal so much to the miserable people of the world is because of a little thing that was said to me and came almost as a flash of lightning — it was so illuminating. I went to a dinner of the Americans for Democratic Action, where George Kennan who used to head the policy-making group in the State Department (he's now at Princeton in advanced studies on a year's leave), made a most careful review. It was an extraordinarily reasoned and carefully put together speech giving the whole background of our present situation. It was a very encouraging speech in many ways. When he finished, next to me was sitting Dr. Palla of Indonesia, and he turned to me and said, "Mrs. Roosevelt, that was an encouraging speech but, you see, you are such a fortunate nation. Your people can talk about freedom. If I walk down the street at home and anyone dares to speak to me, he will not talk about freedom, he will talk about where his next piece of bread is coming from." That's why the insistence on the part of communism on the economic right to work and the right and obligation of the state to control that and to see that every man and woman does work has such an appeal for the miserable peoples of the world.

Our children must understand these things, our children must know *that*, but only as they live the real brotherhood of all men. Of course it's so that some people are not as developed and cannot accept responsibilities as well as others. That will come in time, but no one can say that all people must not have the opportunity to develop and that all people cannot reach the same development as they are given those opportunities. Because that would be denying the very beliefs of our own religion.

Our children must learn that leadership in the world of today means brotherhood for all, means a feeling of equality for the men of Asia, of Africa, and of the United States and of Europe. I can't tell you what a curious feeling it gave me when a very intelligent, brilliant, and well-educated man from Pakistan, in the heat of debate, said to me, "Ah, you are willing to do that for the children of Europe; you won't do it in the same way for the children of Asia because we are colored — we can die. You only did it for European children because they were white." I had a sinking of the heart and a feeling

of horror that any educated citizen could feel that way, and it was evident that he felt it — and felt it deeply. It taught me a very deep lesson which I'll never forget. I'll never forget that that was his feeling and that there were things that had made him feel it. There's much we have to do to improve our own Republican type of government. We have to choose our representatives carefully and we have to back them. We have to know what they do. In our type of government, you can't hold your hands and say, "We leave it to somebody else" because the responsibility for everything is that of the individual citizen. The child has to learn that too. He has to learn in school what his responsibility is. He has to learn that to live for his country is even harder than to die for it. He may have to die for it — I hope not. I hope that if we do the things wisely that are being asked of us today we may prevent an all-out war. We'll never prevent it by being afraid. We'll never be the kind of a nation that leads the world unless we have confidence in ourselves and impart it to our young people, unless we live day by day with the determination that we will improve our way of life, and unless we will see that all the people of our nation have an opportunity for a better way of life. Then we will be a part of the family of the world. If we do that, someday the United Nations may be all that it was set up to be. Someday it may be a parliament of the people of the world, and thus succeed in keeping us at peace.

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The Book Column

Professional Books

BALL, A. M. *The Compounding and Hyphenation of English Words*. New York 10: Funk and Wagnalls Co. 1951. 256 pp. \$4.00. This new book is a practical and comprehensive guide to successfully solving the problems of compounding and hyphenation whenever they arise. Of incalculable value to anyone interested in exactness of language, it consists primarily of a body of rules which, by wording and arrangement, emphasize the fact that compounding is fundamentally a matter of grammar, essential to correct sentence structure and to clarity of meaning and good composition. The rules of governing compounding cover all pertinent phases of English grammar and the grammatical terms are fully defined. The rules covering hyphenation emphasize the fact that the hyphen is merely a visual aid to facilitate understanding. For the sake of completeness, the rules also cover affixes, since the hyphen is sometimes an essential factor in derivation. Every rule in the book is illustrated by examples, there is a comprehensive index and extensive alphabetic lists—one of approximately 20,000 compounds, including many not to be found in any general dictionary or published list; another of approved two-noun phrases that are not properly compounded unless used jointly as an adjective.

BATCHELDER, H. T., editor. *Audio-Visual Materials in Teachers Education*. Lock Haven, Pennsylvania: Allen D. Patterson, Executive Secretary of the Association for Student Teaching, State Teachers College. 1950. 272 pp. \$2.00. This is the 1950 yearbook of the Association of Student Teaching. The book is divided into six parts: Part One, "The Place and Function of Audio-Visual Materials in Teacher Education;" Part Two, "The Production and Utilization of Audio-Visual Materials in Teacher Education;" Part Three, "Implementing the Audio-Visual Program in Teacher Education Institutions;" Part Four, "Sources of Audio-Visual Teaching Materials;" Part Five, an annotated bibliography of 101 selected films for teacher education; and Part Six, "Bibliography on the Supervision of Student Teaching."

BERNER, E. R., and SACRA, MABEL. *A Basic Book Collection for Junior High Schools*. Chicago 11: American Library Association. 1950. 84 pp. \$1.75. Here is a list of 600 books recommended for junior high-school libraries. An effort has been made to fit the selection to the modern junior high-school curriculum and the interests of junior high-school youth. Science and invention as applied to everyday living, the arts, social life and customs, and the development of civilization have been emphasized more than formal science and traditional history. Biographies of modern as well as historical personages have been included. Sports and hobbies that are of importance to junior high-school pupils have been given a place. The use of folklore, fiction, and biography in the teaching of international and intercultural understanding has been recognized. The need for general and recreational reading in all fields as well as in fiction has been kept in mind.

The problem of pupils who read below their normal grade level is an important one in many junior high schools. This limited list cannot pretend to provide adequately for them. No books have been selected because they are particularly well suited to remedial reading. But there are many books selected to meet the interests of normal readers which will also serve as remedial reading material. The fact that the book may be used to meet this need is indicated in the annotation.

CROW, L. D. and ALICE. *An Introduction to Guidance*. New York 16: American Book Company. 1951. 440 pp. \$4.00. This book is divided into three parts. In Part I, "Guidance and Life Adjustment," consideration is given to an over-all view of guidance in relation to individual problems of adjustment in home and school and in occupational, social, and civic experiences. In Part II, "The Guidance Program," the organization and implementation of guidance services are described briefly. Chapters 13 to 18 of Part III trace the guidance needs of individuals from childhood through adulthood. Attention is directed toward the specific functions of guidance services on each of these age and educational levels. Chapters 19 and 20 discuss the life guidance needs in these two areas and methods of meeting them. Also, since community responsibility for citizen welfare is receiving new emphasis, Chapter 21 considers the ways in which the community can co-operate with the school guidance activities. Finally, Chapter 22 directs attention toward the appraisal of existing guidance techniques and future trends.

Educational Policies Commission. *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1951. 100 pp. \$1.00. This is a report of a two-year study by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators. It says that the public schools can, and do, and should teach moral and spiritual values. It is an analysis of basic issues in moral and spiritual education, with an affirmation of the fundamental importance of such education in the public-school program. It suggests ten specific values as the basis for educational programs. It defines issues of fundamental importance to the American people and their public schools and recommends policies and methods for improving the teaching of moral and spiritual values in American elementary and secondary schools. "For effective programs of moral and spiritual education, the schools must have teachers of good character, small classes, ample facilities and resources, and co-operation from the home, the church, and other out-of-school agencies," says the Commission. Instructional methods and learning activities appropriate to the declared objectives are suggested in the report.

CUNNINGHAM, RUTH, *et al*, *Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1951. 462 pp. \$3.25. The teacher plays a vital role in building group living in the classroom. This book will aid in increasing skills in this area. Ways of working with pupils, parents, teachers, resource people, and others to create better group living of boys and girls are reported. The authors recount their findings on what makes groups "tick," examine group values in school programs, suggest symptoms to be studied, and tell how parents helped with planning. They suggest answers to such questions as these: How can a group's goal be discovered? What factors influence the structure of the group? How should learning experiences be selected to foster good group living? What techniques and instruments are helpful in studying group life? Many sociograms, charts, and photographs illustrate the text.

DAWSON, DOROTHA, chairman. *A Basic Book Collection for High Schools*. Chicago 11: American Library Association. 1950. 203 pp. \$2.75. This is the fifth edition compiled by a joint committee of the ALA, the National Council of Teachers of English and the NEA. It succeeds the last edition published in 1942. While the book is an excellent aid to those selecting books for the small or medium-sized high school, it will also be found useful as a checklist of recommended books in the larger high schools. The following information is given about each book listed and in the following order: author, title, publisher, date, price, annotation or descriptive note, Dewey Decimal classification number, subject headings for the library catalog, (W) or (W-np) if a Wilson card is available for that title, and finally the Library of Congress card number. When the

card available is for an edition other than the one listed, the number is followed by an asterisk. When a popular title is available in several editions from different publishers, the Wilson Company does not put the publisher's name nor the paging of the book on its printed cards.

FORRESTER, GERTRUDE. *Methods of Vocational Guidance*, Revised. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Company. 1951. 473 pp. \$4.25. Here are suggestions for teachers of all high-school subjects—with a new collection of classroom-proved techniques for making a guidance program function. This revised, enlarged edition now includes: experiences in the large metropolitan school as well as in the small school; suggestions for classroom teachers of all subjects—including those of business education. Guidance methods are described in detail; source materials are cited; three chapters are given to workable techniques of counseling; functional schemes for placement and follow-up services are discussed in detail; time-saving, practical suggestions on filing guidance materials are described; and hundreds of interesting and usable pupil activities are included. The book is divided into seven major areas: A Bird's-Eye View of the Occupational World, Narrowing One's Choice, Investigating Specific Fields of Work, Giving Information about Conditions of Work, Grooming Pupils for Jobs, Assembling Information for Vocational Planning, and Enlisting the Co-operation of Others. Special attention is devoted to each of the following objectives: (1) informing pupils about the occupational world; (2) acquainting pupils with sources of information regarding occupational opportunities, requirements, and trends; (3) informing pupils about conditions of work; (4) giving pupils mastery of techniques to be used in investigating occupations; (5) informing pupils about courses, colleges, and schools for further training; and (6) cultivating an understanding of interrelationships among occupations and the contribution of all forms of work to the welfare of society.

In the 3,990 high schools employing counselors serving half-time or more, many of the methods described in this book may be adapted by the director of vocational guidance. In the more than 24,000 high schools in the United States which do not employ vocational counselors, these methods may be helpful to a classroom teacher, department chairman, or guidance committee interested in the process of assisting individuals so that they reach in life an occupation which is in general accord with their abilities and interests. Many of these methods are applicable for use with groups in social agencies, and some of the suggestions are addressed to them.

FRENCH, WILL; HULL, J. D.; and DODDS, B. L. *American High School Administration: Policy and Practice*. New York 16: Rinehart and Co. 1951. 633 pp. \$5.00. The authors of this book believe that secondary education should be an instrument of democratic policy in the United States of America. Its primary obligation is thought to be that of helping all our boys and girls to grow into young men and women who are mentally and physically fit, who will become good homemakers, competent workers, and active, socially conscious citizens of our representative democracy. This book not only undertakes to acquaint students of secondary education and its organization and administration with the fundamental policies now in effect in our high schools and with the practices by which these policies are currently implemented, but it also tries to appraise their usefulness in the more completely democratized high school this country needs in this postwar period. As a means of speeding the process of change in this direction, it also provides opportunity for students to evaluate some of the newer emerging policies and practices in terms of what is needed in the development in this country of the world's first and best example of a thoroughly democratized program of education for all youth.

The book is divided into six parts: Part One: "The Executive Function and Youth Education;" Part Two: "Staff Personnel Relationships, Responsibilities,

and Organization;" Part Three: "The Principal and the Educational Program;" Part Four: "The Principal and Pupil-Personnel Activities;" Part Five: "The Principal and the High-School Plant;" Part Six: "The High School and Its Community."

GRAVES, A. D. *American Secondary Education*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Co. 1951. 419 pp. \$4.00. The major purpose of this book is to interpret American secondary education from the standpoint of its development, its purposes, and its problems, and to suggest some guide lines for the future. Secondary education in America cannot profitably be examined except in relation to the society from which education takes its meaning, the cultures and subcultures in which secondary schools exist, the purposes and problems of secondary education in the world today, and the nature of the learner and the learning processes. An attempt is made to examine the various relationships involved in such a way that the beginning student of secondary education will become oriented to the task of treating the problems of adolescents for the purpose of retaining and reinforcing the ideals of adolescent education in a democracy. Many practical suggestions from outstanding school systems are reported. Recent developments by study groups, workshops, and various association committees are reviewed. National and regional problems are described. The efforts of some states and communities to develop an educational program in keeping with the times are summarized.

Particular attention is paid to newer curriculum developments in American high schools, junior high schools, and junior colleges. An analysis of trends in curriculum changes is included. The problems of education in the postwar world are reviewed. The effect of cultural changes on the problems of secondary education is presented.

HARMS, ERNEST, editor. *The Handbook of Child Guidance*. New York 19: Child Care Publications, 30 W. 58th St. 1947. 751 pp. \$6.00. The aim of this book is to outline the broad fundamental problems which the science of child guidance must encompass. The product of a larger group of collaborators, the book attempts to reflect the present stage in the development of child guidance. This survey presents the main aspects of the work of guiding the healthy child. Special emphasis is given to social and religious aspects of child guidance and to social viewpoints. The book is not a bill of complaints against modern education, but rather an attempt to offer solutions to the main problems encountered in education. The major divisions of the book are: Development of Child Guidance in the United States, The Guidance of the Normal Child, Guidance of the Physically Handicapped Child, Guidance of the Problem and Subnormal Child, Training for Child Guidance, The Social Aspects of Child Guidance, Religious Aspects of Guidance, and Special Viewpoints for Guidance.

HOLMAN, M. V. *How It Feels to Be a Teacher*. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1950. 208 pp. \$3.25. The word *feel* is the keystone of the material presented here. How the teacher feels about the adjustments she must make should be of interest not only to the teacher but also to those who make up her professional and social world. The book is written for teachers whose experience and outlook indicate that they will be likely to remain in the field of education for the duration of their professional lives. It is hoped that the teacher will approach the material in the spirit of constructive introspection, that she will look back into her own childhood, teenage, and college periods and the years which followed. In this way she may gain new insights into her own life as well as the lives of the youth with whom she comes in contact. The book is in no sense of the word prescriptive; if a blueprint for the perfect teacher could be given, the problems would be solved and everyone would be satisfied. Actually the answer is within the teacher herself. The im-

portant thing is not so much what the experience in her life may be, but rather what that experience means to her.

- LINCOLN, G. A.; STONE, W. S.; and HARVEY, T. H. *Economics of National Security*. New York, Prentice-Hall. 1950. 617 pp. This book aims at surveying the scope and nature of the economic problems caused by the "anti-aggression" policy of our country and the related principles of national mobilization for "hot war." Since wars, hot, cold, and tepid, are conducted by governments controlling and directing the resources of nations, the authors write of government as much as of economics.

The opening chapters deal with government, which is charged with providing "for the common defense," and with the tangible sinews of strength in a power struggle—men, raw materials, industrial facilities, transportation, communications, and power. The next succeeding chapters deal with the measures of an economic nature undertaken by government for preparedness, for the twilight of neither peace nor war, and for development of a maximum economic effort in war—procurement, war finance, stabilization of an economy in a national security effort, and the national budget. The final two chapters survey the use of economic measures as an instrument of foreign security policy of the atomic age. Each chapter closes with a summary and with topics for discussion. Bibliographies are included as aids to instruction and suggestions for further investigation.

- MANN, MARTY. *Primer on Alcoholism*. New York 16: Rinehart and Co. 1950. 224 pp. \$2.00. In this book the author presents material about alcoholism that will be found helpful to the teacher presenting a unit on this subject to her health classes. The author describes alcoholism and its causes; he defines the alcoholic and discusses the various steps that can be taken to overcome this disease.

- McGRATH, E. J. *Education, the Wellspring of Democracy*. University: University of Alabama Press. 1951. 149 pp. \$2.50. U. S. Commissioner of Education McGrath views the present status of American public education, from the elementary grades through the graduate school, with emphasis on critical problems, proposed solutions, and needed changes. His thesis is that American education must be strengthened from the top to bottom and extended to additional millions of youth if the democratic American way of life is to prevail over the attacks of militant totalitarianism.

- MEAD, MARGARET. *The School in American Culture*. Cambridge 38, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press. 1951. 48 pp. \$1.50. This is a challenging statement on what might be called "Coming of Age in America's Schools." The challenge as Miss Mead sees it is to procure teachers who will be able to prepare youth for the unknown world in which they will be living. The problem is to work out ways in which both the contributions of the past and the demands of an unknown future may be represented in the present behavior of the teacher.

"In a very stable, very slowly changing society," says Miss Mead, "teachers as they grow older may easily grow gentler and wiser by simply watching generations of youngsters who pass through their hands. Children in this society are essentially the same youngsters, only better understood. But in a changing society, age brings not wisdom, but confusion, unless provision is made for the teacher to change as the children change."

Miss Mead discusses the contrasts and conflicts in the role of the American teacher: as the teacher in the little red schoolhouse, interpreting the pioneer world to her pupils; as the teacher in the academy transmitting the European past; and as the new, emerging teacher whose task is to prepare her students for a world which does not yet exist. She suggests that, just as students once learned traditional conformity and traditional skills from teachers who were

practiced and certain, so today's youth can learn the emotional and intellectual attitudes appropriate to a changing world—but only from teachers who have themselves learned to meet that changing world. This book, the Inglis Lecture for 1950, is of immediate interest to everyone who cares about America's youth and about the America those youth will in time live in and refashion.

MEYER, M. F. *How We Hear*. Boston 16: Charles T. Branford Company. 1950. 127 pp. \$2.50. The scope of fifty years of penetrating study in the fields of acoustics and music is covered in this volume. We learn about the mechanism of the human ear, its functions, characteristics, and limitations. It is a book designed for the layman and a number of charts clarify the physical and psychological principles in the text. The section on music will interest anyone who listens to the radio, phonograph, television or stage. How do tones make music? What faculty has the ear for detecting various tones of Tartini? What is the function of the cochlea? The phenomenon of deafness? How was music first recorded and is the method still valid? All these intriguing questions are discussed in this work by a leading authority.

MONTAGU, ASHLEY. *Statement on Race*. New York 21: Henry Schuman. 1951. 184 pp. \$2.00. Here is a primer on one of the most crucial problems of our time—race. Here is a powerful weapon in the fight against the myths and misconceptions of race which have bred so much intolerance and caused so much misery. It embodies the most advanced and carefully tested thinking of the world's outstanding scientists in this field. It is based upon the famous UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) official "Statement by Experts on Race Problems" and is written by the man who drafted and edited the UNESCO Statement. In this book, the author uses each paragraph of the UNESCO statement as text for an entire chapter, amplifying the major points and setting forth brief, easily understood summaries of the basic scientific findings. The result is the most advanced, definitive, concise, and readable scientific work on race available to the general reader, which once and for all defines this difficult and much-abused term.

MUNSON, A. H. *An Ample Field*. Chicago 11: American Library Association. 1950. 136 pp. \$3.00. This is a book that will be helpful not only to the librarian but also to the teacher of English who can do much in the way of guiding the reading of pupils and eventually develop a continued like or dislike for reading. This book discusses in an informal way techniques that both these groups of people will find helpful and effective. To answer those thousands of questions about books, to be able to suggest a book that the inquirer finds most entrancing, to be able to give book talks that call for repeats, these are just a few of the desires of the librarian and English teacher. And in this book she will find many helps.

OBERHOLTZER, K. E., chairman. *Conservation Education in American Schools*. Washington 6, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators of the NEA. 1951. 527 pp. \$4.00. This is an administrator's guide in developing a functional program of education for the wise use of natural resources. It reflects a wholesome balance between the basic principles of a sound program and specific suggestions on how to carry it out and includes many illustrations from actual classroom practice. Although written primarily for superintendents, this yearbook will be widely used by supervisors, classroom teachers, and students in education classes. It points the way into a relatively new area of education, an area vital to the security and progress of America. Its table of contents includes: Conservation, the Price of Survival. Initial Steps Toward Wise Resource Use, Guides for School Programs in Conservation Education, Instructional Materials and Facilities. Some Good Practices in Rural Schools, Some Good Practices in City Schools, Promising State Programs of Conservation Education, Regional Pro-

grams of Conservation Education, Preservice Education of Teachers, and Administrative Leadership. It contains a classified and annotated list of references of more than 300 titles for administrators, teachers, and pupils of all ages; a classified and annotated list of more than 150 films (16-mm.) on conservation and resource use; lists of film-strips and recordings; names and addresses of governmental and nongovernmental agencies and organizations that are concerned with conservation and are in a position to co-operate helpfully with the schools; and a roster of members of the American Association of School Administrators, arranged alphabetically by states.

Patterson's American Educational Directory. Chicago 1: Field Enterprises. 1951. 814 pp. (pages size 8 x 11 inches) \$10.00. The new 1951 edition of this famous book is now available. It includes in one volume the latest listings of hundreds of school officials in towns of 500 to 1,000 population; more than 50,000 school administrators and supervisors; more than 9,000 public school systems; more than 5,000 universities, colleges, professional, private, preparatory, business, military, boarding, and trade schools; more than 9,000 public and college libraries; more than 200 educational associations; hundreds of business concerns listed under their product headings in the buyer's guide; more than 3,000 county and district superintendents; more than 1,400 Federal and state department and board of education officials; more than 3,600 college and university presidents and other administrative officers; more than 16,500 superintendents of school systems and public high-school and junior high-school principals; thousands of supervisors of music, art, physical education, home economics, visual education, industrial education, etc.; and hundreds of business managers and presidents of boards of education. Also teachers, supervisors, textbook adoption committees, instructors in education, curriculum committees, and others will find in one place authentic information about available instructional materials and equipment and where they can be obtained. Sources for basic and supplementary textbooks, reference books, encyclopedias, dictionaries, maps, globes, and equipment such as that used in teaching science, physical education, and business subjects are included. The principal sources of information about films, filmstrips, and slides are listed. Here is the answer to your source of supply questions. Every buyer of educational materials needs this valuable tool. A Trade Index and Buyers' Guide is an added feature of the *Directory*. Reputable business firms are listed alphabetically under their product headings in this featured section. From academic costumes to zoological charts you have at your finger tips the products of American industry designed for school use. This book has been published annually for 48 years and has appeared annually on the desk of many school administrators or their school's library throughout the nation. While this is the regular annual edition, it is greatly improved and expanded over other issues—in fact, it can be truthfully called a new book. It is one book that no high school can afford to be without.

PESTALOZZI, HEINRICH. *The Education of Man.* New York 16: Philosophical Library. 1951. 111 pp. \$2.75. This collection of pithy sayings and aphorisms is designed to present to the serious reader some of the underlying basic principles of the philosophy of education of the great Swiss. Taken from the vast material of Pestalozzi's writings, much of which was never made available in the English language, these thoughts carry in them the breadth and the depth of one of the most remarkable men of modern times.

In his day Pestalozzi (1746-1827) was one of the most widely acclaimed teachers of the young; today it seems fair to assert that Pestalozzi stands out as the one man who, more than any other in educational history, succeeded in shifting educational aims and procedures from a long-prevailing faulty pattern to a distinctly different pattern which has since brought outstandingly better results and still promises indefinite growth. His contention that we best develop

meanings and understanding in life situations, and that life itself is the true basis of teaching and education will hold good now, as it did then. In many ways Pestalozzi seems to anticipate the modern school of education, its aims and trends.

SOLOMON, BEN. *Leadership of Youth*. Putnam Valley, New York: Youth Service, Inc. 1950. 176 pp. \$3.00. Not only tomorrow and the next day, but today there will be an opportunity for leadership. The author defines leadership as "influence with people—which causes them to: listen to you and agree on common goals, follow you or your advice, and go into action towards these goals." Directed to all individuals who have some responsibilities for leadership of youth, the general chapters are devoted to the meaning and different kinds of leadership common misconceptions, levels of leadership, and general principles. The remaining chapters dealing with leadership in a youth-serving organization are: The Youth Leader; Leadership for Life; Leadership Through Instruction; Techniques in Problem Analysis; Leadership vs. Your Job; Leadership Implies Action; Leadership in the Outdoors; Girls Are Different; and Development and Training. The appendix consists of a brief summary under the title "Earmarks of a Leader."

The author is Editor of *Youth Leaders Digest* and special lecturer and teacher at New York University and Springfield College. He has written extensively on juvenile delinquency, camping, hiking, and the general youth problem in America. Written refreshingly on the most significant but also on a relatively unexplored and misunderstood subject, the book gives basic concepts and guidance on what a leader should be like, what techniques he uses, and how he uses them. The material will aid in the development of the type of leadership so essential for youth in a democracy.

Books for Pupil and Teacher Use

ALLEN, ETHAN. *Baseball Techniques*. Illustrated. New York 3: A. S. Barnes and Company. 1951. 96 pp. \$1.50. This is a book for the beginner and inexperienced coach. The author tells how to play baseball by showing how, with illustrations and coaching advice going hand in hand. All the basic fundamentals of this great American game are presented step by step. Batting, base running, infield and outfield play, pitching, and catching are all included.

ANDERSON, P. H. *Christ's Preachers*. Boston 20: The Christopher Publishing House. 1951. 200 pp. \$2.50. This book represents the author's attempt to be of help to students who are in need of an orientation course in the field of preaching. It is an inspiring message to those in the ministry and among the general public.

AUL, H. B. *How to Build Garden Structures*. New York 10: Sheridan House. 1950. 384 pp. \$3.50. This book of 80 chapters covers quite a wide scope of ideas that can be used by almost anyone. Each structure is illustrated and the description is in simple and brief form. Here one can find complete instruction on how to build almost any conceivable garden structure. It is a gold mine of ideas for every home owner and gardener. The school instructor of shop classes will find much that will interest the pupils of his classes. Not only are construction details given, but equally as important, the question of how to make the garden attractive is discussed. Subjects are grouped under ten general headings.

BAILEY, MATILDA, and LEAVELL, U. W. *Worlds of Adventure*. 1951. 509 pp. \$2.20 (for grade seven); *Worlds of People*. 1951. 511 pp. \$2.20 (for grade eight); *Worlds to Explore* (591 pp., for grade nine). New York 16: American Book Company. This group of three books is the first three of a six-book series for grades seven through twelve. The reading material in these books has been selected on the basis of pupil interest and its potentiality of developing reading power. Each chapter in each book concentrates upon one important aspect of reading. However, comprehension, speed, and vocabulary enrichment are considered to be of equal and primary importance. Consequently, while each is de-

veloped in a single chapter, each is developed cumulatively throughout in each book of the series. In *Worlds of Adventure* for grade seven, adventure is the keynote throughout; in *Worlds of People* for grade eight, a strong emphasis is placed upon the fascinating events that have happened and are happening to real people around the world; in *Worlds to Explore* for grade nine, there are many sorts of worlds to be explored through the medium of interesting reading.

- BALDWIN, FAITH. *The Whole Armor*. New York 16: Rinehart and Company. 1951. 334 pp. \$3.00. This is the story of one year in Paul's life as a minister in New York. It was a crucial year because during it, Paul was forced to test his faith. Connie Marshall, who loved him and whom he loved, tried to make the test easier for Paul. Paul's parish, people with conflicts, frustrations and tragedies, tried to make it easier for him too—by needing him. But Paul had to learn the hard way—a way that in many ways seemed cruelly unfair.
- BARKER, SHIRLEY. *Rivers Parting*. New York 16: Crown Publishers. 1950. 311 pp. \$3.00. This historical novel tells of early life in New Hampshire; the story of the trials and tribulations of Will, Doll, and Nan. It is the story of New Hampshire where men loyal to the king and his church built a happy land that honored both the spirit and the flesh until the godly men of Massachusetts came with their laws to still their neighbors' laughter.
- BARRINGTON, G. W. *Wind Runner*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1951. 160 pp. Here is an unusual story of an animal about which little has been written. Told with interesting details of wild life and animal character, it is filled with excitement and action. Accompanied by fine pictures, the author has created in Fleet the Wind Runner a real animal personality to evoke the interest of readers young or old.
- BEIM, JERROLD. *Across the Bridge*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1951. 183 pp. \$2.50. Ten-year-old Jeff was a shy boy, who—because he had to wear glasses—couldn't play most of the games his older brother Donnie and the other boys did, so they thought of him as a sissy. When the family had to move to a poor factory district on the other side of the river, Jeff looked forward to it because perhaps he would find it easier to make friends among the Polish children there. Through Tessa Gawronski, his first friend, and Sid Guski with whom he started a newspaper route, Jeff learned the real problems of being poor. There were no places to play except on empty lots and in the street. There was little money for new clothes, and even the simple meals Jeff's family had were better than Tessa's large family could afford. When Tessa was knocked down by a truck one day, Jeff and Sid got the grownups to start a petition for a city playground, and—in working for this—Jeff forgot his own shyness and won a place for himself both in school and with Donnie's friends.
- BISCHOF, G. P. *Atoms at Work*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1951. 140 pp. \$2.25. This book came into being as the author answered questions asked by his own son. In simple, direct terms, the author—a teacher at the Brooklyn Technical High School—explains the basic principles of atomic activity and tells how atoms have been discovered and developed. Step by step, he takes the reader through simple experiments he can perform easily himself to accounts of more complicated experiments carried out by well-known scientists in their search for information about the atom.
- BLEEKER, SONIA. *The Apache Indians*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company. 1951. 157 pp. \$2.00. This is the second book in a series about different Indian tribes of North America. *Indians of the Longhouse*, the story of the Iroquois, was the first. The Apache of the Southwest have always been among the most colorful of all Indian tribes. Fierce raiders and fighters, they were for hundreds of years the terror of more peaceful tribes and of frontier settlers. Unlike many Indians, they were wanderers, moving their home camps as they

needed new hunting ranges or planned new raids. They roamed over all the territory that now is Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, and northern Mexico.

BOUGHAL, PATRICK. *Opportunities in the Printing Trades*. New York 19: Vocational Guidance Manuals, 45 W. 45th Street. 1950. 112 pp. The book discusses the jobs in letterpress, offset, and gravure printing, with stress on education, apprenticeship, unions, wages, and other valuable information.

BRISCOE, BIRDSALL. *Spurs from San Isidro*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1951. 256 pp. \$3.00. This is a love story and a re-creation of life in the turbulent and untamed Southwest in the decade before the turn of the century. It is alive with color and excitement. There is the teeming action of a cattle drive, of bordertown fights and desperate riding; there are moments of serene beauty as Andrew discovers the little miracle-working church in San Isidro and his love for his childhood sweetheart. It is a romantic novel of the old Southwest.

CHURCHILL, W. S. *The Hinge of Fate*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1950. 1016 pp. \$6.00. Winston Churchill says of this fourth volume of the Second World War, "I have called this *The Hinge of Fate* because in it we turn from almost uninterrupted disaster to almost unbroken success. For the first six months of this story all went ill; for the last six months everything went well. And this agreeable change continued to the end of the struggle."

The third volume, *The Grand Alliance*, closed with the Prime Minister's return from his first visit to the White House, just after the Pearl Harbour attack. Now that the Grand Alliance was complete, Mr. Churchill knew that ultimate victory was sure unless the enemy should discover and make use of a hitherto unknown and devastating weapon. Nevertheless, sore trials and great anxieties lay ahead. In this book we read Winston Churchill's own story of the most critical period of the war and the dawning triumph which was to be the reward of the courage and the labor of the Allies, not unaided by his genius and his faith.

COATSWORTH, ELIZABETH. *Door to the North*. Philadelphia 7: John C. Winston Company. 1950. 256 pp. \$2.50. "Magnus, by the Grace of God, King of Norway, Sweden, and Skaane, sends to all men who see or hear this letter, good health and happiness." So read the royal degree that sent Paul Knutson and a band of forty hardy Norsemen 3,000 miles across the uncharted Atlantic. To win Greenland's western settlement back to Christianity was the avowed purpose of this odyssey. The youth's tense personal drama snaps through the pages of this tale against a background of high-pitched excitement that follows the expedition from legendary Vinland into present-day Minnesota. There on a stone that reads "We were 8 Swedes and 22 Norwegians on an exploration journey from Vinland to the West . . ." a terse record was written—a record that has lived since 1364.

DARINGER, H. F. *Country Cousin*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1951. 277 pp. \$2.50. Susannah Endicott loved the Long Island farm in Hempstead Parish, where she had lived all her life. Her parents' decision to send her to New York for the winter of 1683 so that she might attend a good school and learn to "comport herself as a young lady" was bitter news. Even though she would live with Uncle Ben, Aunt Martha, and Cousin Lucetta and there would be much more gaiety than she was used to in the country, Susannah still did not want to leave her home. But Father's mind was made up, and when Susannah's clothes were in readiness, they set off for the city in a four-wheeled wagon drawn by the team of red oxen. Miss Daringer offers a new friend to the many girls who will read the book with great pleasure. It is an absorbing story, filled with gaiety, good times, and warmly drawn characters—all enriched by a living sense of an earlier period in American history.

- DECKER, LUANE. *Fast Man on a Pivot*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1951. 221 pp. \$2.50. At last Second Baseman Bud Walker was back again with the Blue Sox—his time, he profoundly hoped, to stay. He was not a spectacular player, just a reliable one. But he could make that double play. He had figured out to a split second just how to make the pivot and get off the throw in the absolute minimum of time. His teammates liked him, particularly the pitchers, for whom he saved game after game by his expert handling of the double play. But the fans insisted on flashy young Devlin, their choice for the second-base spot. From their hot partisanship sprang an almost unbearable situation for Bud.
- DOUGLASS, H. R.; KINNEY, L. B.; and LENTZ, D. W. *Everyday Arithmetic*. "Junior Book 1" (1950. 498 pp.); "Junior Book 2" (1950. 512 pp.) New York 10: Henry Holt and Co. These books comprise a new arithmetic series recently published by Henry Holt and Co. Pupils of grades 7 and 8 will find interesting introductions to new areas in these two books. Each chapter is introduced by a group of questions that will be answered in the chapter. The book contains many practice exercises which help the pupil to retain the basic facts of arithmetic that he has encountered to date. Inventory tests are included to assist the pupil as well as the teacher to uncover strong and weak points—thus showing where extra emphasis is needed. Word and story problems are related to everyday life experiences of the pupils. Special projects, optional problems and topics, "hurdles," etc., are some of the interesting and enticing features included in this series of arithmetics. Care, neatness, and sustained thinking are a few of the habits stressed throughout the series.
- DOWNS, B. W. *A Study of Six Plays by Ibsen*. New York 10: Cambridge University Press. 1950. 225 pp. \$3.00. In this volume, Professor Downs has selected for close critical study six of Ibsen's great achievements: *Love's Comedy*, to show how Ibsen handled comedy and satire; *Brand* and *Peer Gynt*, which, taken together, illustrate Ibsen's strong conception of duty and destiny; *A Doll's House*, for its dealing with intense social problems of its time; *The Wild Duck* for Ibsen's use of symbols; and *The Master Builder* for the autobiographical element present in almost everything that Ibsen wrote.
- DuBOIS, GRAHAM. *Plays for Great Occasions*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc. 1951. 379 pp. \$3.50. This volume contains twenty-four one-act, royalty-free dramas for celebrating holidays and important anniversaries. Although most of the plays are historical, there are a few contemporary comedies to round out the collection. Production notes for each play give suggestions about costumes and properties. Costumes, settings, and properties may be very simple, as the dialogue and situations are presented with enough color to convey the spirit of the plays without the use of expensive properties. These plays reveal the personalities and human qualities of some of our country's great leaders.
- EARLE, O. L. *State Birds and Flowers*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1951. 64 pp. \$2.00. This book pictures and describes all the state birds and flowers. A brief text accompanies each drawing, explaining the nesting habits and the food of the birds and the growth and reproductive processes of the flowers.
- EMERY, GUY. *Robert E. Lee*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1951. 176 pp. \$2.75. This is the story of a soldier who had to choose between two loyalties—his country and his family. After thirty years of distinguished service in the U. S. Army, Colonel Robert E. Lee refused the field command of the U. S. Forces because he could not fight against the friends, cousins, and his own two sons who had volunteered to defend their native state in the Army of Virginia. "Duty, Honor, Country" had special meaning to the son of Henry (Light Horse Harry) Lee, spectacular officer of the Revolutionary Army and three times Governor of Virginia. For two years he led his beloved South against unbelievable odds

and hardships of supply and communication with such bold genius that he earned the admiration of the North as well as the complete devotion of his soldiers. Here is the inspirational biography of a great man and outstanding General written by an author who is both a Virginian and a West Pointer. Here is also the story of our nation in crisis—a believable picture of the war years which assured the “more perfect union” that is our undivided strength today.

EVANS, E. K. *People Are Important*. Irvington-on-Hudson, New York: Capitol Publishing Co. 1951. 88 pp. \$2.50. The two billion people who inhabit our globe have different and interesting ways of living, eating, dressing, and being polite. But with all these differences, we are still people—important to ourselves and important to the world. This is the theme of Eva Knox Evans' latest book. And again she has translated the anthropologist's scientific data into a chatty, rhythmic book that youth can understand and relate to their own experiences.

FAUROT, DON. *Football: Secrets of the “Split T” Formation*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1950. 376 pp. This is the authoritative handbook on the “Split T” offense written by the originator of this system. It is a well-balanced, highly informative football book by a coaches' coach—one that every student of football will need for his library. The text discusses the “Split T” in all its details both offensively and defensively. There is also material on the strategy of football and the quarterback's duties, a section on the particular problems the young coach runs into, and a fine chapter on the spectator's angle of the game. All the basic “Split T” plays are described in detail, and each individual player's assignments are completely analyzed. Charts and halftones are used liberally to illustrate the text.

FENNER, P. R. *Pirates, Pirates, Pirates*. New York 17: Franklin Watts. 1951. 287 pp. \$2.75. Here the tall-masted brigs and the Spanish galleons, richly laden, scud before the wind. The rakish pirate sloops storm over the horizon, their black flags billowing. The thundering broadsides of shot, the clashing swords and cutlasses, and the wild howls of pirate mobs resound. Through seaport towns strut swarthy, evil-looking men with dirks at their waist sashes and gold rings in their ears. And by moonlight, along lonely dunes, strange stealthy figures creep with treasure chests and spades. Blackbeard, Captain Kidd, Stede Bonnet, and Jean Lafitte, pirate captains, live again. It's a rousing life of adventure, and these stories will take you back to it on the breath of the salt wind that blows through their pages.

FITCH, F. M. *Allah, the God of Islam*. New York 16: Lothrop, Lee, and Shepard Co. 1950. 144 pp. \$3.00. In this book, the author tries to answer such questions as: What were the beginnings of this religion? What contributions has it made to the world? What do its followers believe today? This is a story of a great historical conquest as well as the story of the religion of Islam—Mohammedans who number almost one seventh of the human race. It is a story that will interest adult as well as young people.

FORTENBAUGH, ROBERT, and TARMAN, H. J. *The Pennsylvania Story*. State College, Pennsylvania: Penns Valley Publishers. 1949. 380 pp. \$3.20. This book has been prepared to give to youth an interesting story of this great state. To make the story more impressive and realistic, a generous allotment of space has been given to illustrations. To stimulate further pupil interest and participation, a list of projects and activities appears at the end of each chapter. An important kind of activity is that concerned with the history of the local community. In this connection the teacher can contribute notably to the value of the course by suggesting activities relating to the particular community in which the pupils live.

The chief difficulty of the learner of the age level for which this book has been prepared is that of reconstructing or reliving the life of the past. The

method of presentation and the studied selection of materials has been keyed, as accurately as possible, to the ninth-grade level. The end hoped for is a basis for a realistic understanding of the life, culture, institutions, and leading personalities of Pennsylvania, both in the distant past and in recent times.

The use of collateral materials both for teaching and learning is imperative if more than a mere exposition and study of a single textbook is intended. Distinction must, however, be made between materials for the teacher's preparation and the student's use. Thus, at the end of each chapter a list of thumbnail descriptions of books and references for the student's use has been given, with a view to inviting the student's further interest. Appendix III provides a carefully selected list of books for the teacher's own preparation and for assignment in special activities.

HAHN, OTTO. *New Atoms*. New York 1: Elsevier Publishing Co. 1950. 184 pp. \$1.75. Few could have realized, when Otto Hahn split the uranium atom in 1938, that this was one of the momentous happenings of our time. Nor could anyone have expected that Hitler, in the full tide of power, would fail to turn to aggressive use the brilliant achievements of Hahn and his school. Yet he it was who made the atom bomb from an isotope of uranium, while Hahn held aloof from the Nazis. In the three parts of this book, we first hear his Nobel lecture on the artificial fission of uranium, then listen to an account of the new elements, including berkelium and californium, and finally enjoy some armchair reminiscences of the early days when Hahn collaborated with Ramsey in London, worked in Montreal at Rutherford's Institute, and disputed with the American Boltwood; the days when apparatus often contrived from tin cans and cigarette boxes was opening up whole new worlds of science. Intense personal interest always attaches to a great scientist's own account of his work. This book has topical interest too because it makes very clear what many laymen want to know.

HARNSBERGER, C. T. *The Lincoln Treasury*. Chicago 5: Wilcox and Follett Co. 1950. 384 pp. \$5.00. This is a collection of some of the wit and wisdom of Lincoln. By careful research and skillful culling from Lincoln's speeches, debates, letters, recorded conversations, and anecdotes, the compiler has made available a wealth of the best of his statements. These are arranged in alphabetical order according to subject matter so that a specific quotation can be found quickly and easily. As one reads these sayings, he forms a portrait of the man, himself, through the medium of his own words.

HAYES, C. J. H.; MOON, P. T.; and WAYLAND, J. W. *World History*. New York 11: The Macmillan Co. 1950. 896 pp. \$3.48. This is a world history in fact as well as in name. The scope of the text is exceptionally broad and coherent. Careful selection and condensation have governed the presentation of subject matter. It is a complete running story of mankind from the Stone Age to the present with emphasis upon the larger movements and main forces which have contributed most to civilization. The earlier editions of *World History* are well known. This second revised edition has been in large part rewritten to bring both text and illustrations completely up to date. Outstanding features are: a clear presentation and development of an understanding of events that led up to and caused World War II; a review of the war and the problems that resulted from it; coverage of the United Nations—its founding, its organization, and its problems; a survey of current history and problems of international importance; a survey of such areas of danger as Trieste, the Balkans, Palestine, and China; a discussion of the creation of such new states as the Philippines, India, Israel, and those in the East Indies and Indo-China; the recent history of the Marshall Plan and the Atlantic Pact; a 1950 map of Europe; and new illustrations including war and post-war photos of important places and events and portraits of current world personalities.

HENDEL, SAMUEL. *Charles Evans Hughes and the Supreme Court*. New York 27: King's Crown Press. 1951. 349 pp. \$4.50. While this book draws a portrait of Mr. Hughes, it gives greater emphasis to his career than to his work as a member of the Court. Primarily, this book presents an analysis of his contributions as Associate Justice and as Chief Justice to the solution of important constitutional issues that came before the Supreme Court. Concern for the tradition, continuity, and prestige of the Court loomed large in the thinking of Mr. Hughes. It is in historical context, therefore, that his judicial endeavors are appraised. The author also attempts to trace the impact of political, economic, and social conflicts upon the discussions of the Court.

HOGARTH, G. A. *Lucy's League*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1951. 208 pp. \$2.50. When Granny Gay's invitation came—to spend next summer with her in America—Lucy, who lived with her family in London, was tremendously excited. Mother warned her that it would take a lot of money for the whole family to make the trip, and unless they could think of some way to earn it, Lucy had better not count on the visit. So Lucy started her League, with her mother for the first member, then her brother John, and finally the rest of the family as they proved worthy.

HOLT, STEPHEN. *The Whistling Stallion*. New York 3: Longmans, Green & Co. 1951. 211 pp. \$2.50. Roy Bell loved the family ranch in Alberta better than anything in the world. But his father was ill and the time came when it seemed the ranch must be broken up, the stock sold, and the Bells go to the city. To save the ranch was challenge for any man and Roy, still only a boy, suddenly and grimly became a man. In a swiftly paced story of great tenseness and excitement, Stephen Holt tells of Roy's heartbreaking effort to save the ranch.

HOUSE, BRANT, editor. *The Book of Cats*. New York 19: A. A. Wyn. 1950. \$2.00. This book contains more than a hundred photographs of cats. A few are copies of famous pictures which have been exhibited before. Each picture is shown in its full dramatic force and detail. The captions are apt and will provoke many a happy chuckle.

HOWARD, ELIZABETH. *Peddler's Girl*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1951. 240 pp. \$2.50. The idea of Lucy's leaving her place in Detroit society to roam over the countryside in a brightly painted peddler's wagon shocked most of her relatives and friends. Mr. Hartley, her declared suitor, disapproved more violently than anyone else. But Lucy, desperately lonely since her mother's death, could not bear to be parted from Uncle Adam, who was used to traveling half of each year and could no longer stay within doors now that spring had come. There were grave difficulties in the way. Lucy's discovery of Mr. Hartley's dishonesty removed only one of them. Uncle Adam's fear for her happiness if she were to marry Jotham, a born wanderer like himself, still stood between the young people. How they were able at last to plan a life together on the road is the climax of this fresh and lovely story of young love.

HUNT, M. L. *Better Known as Johnny Applesseed*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1950. 228 pp. \$2.50. This book is the result of a conscientious student's long research. It contains the few biographical truths of Johnny's life and the legends which have truth in them because they flower from truth. The author pictures the major parts of Johnny's life in nine stories, each named for a variety of apple which Johnny may have planted in the Midwest river valleys. Each story takes him westward through the years, from the Youghiohenny to the Mississippi.

The Investigating Powers of Congress. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co. 1951. 281 pp. \$1.75. This book is a compilation of the most readable and logical expressions of the authorities on both sides of this important and controversial question. Both political parties are given "their day in court." The opening articles are devoted to history and background. There is scarcely a writer in the book who

does not admit the abuses now inherent in the powers of an investigating committee. Throughout the book attackers of Congressional investigations admit their necessity and their defenders admit their abuses. The last articles in the book are devoted to proposed reforms. Their adoption or rejection will be determined by public opinion.

KADISH, M. R. *Point of Honor*. New York 22: Random House, 1951. 311 pp. \$3.00.

This book concerns men in war and is, therefore, a story of much action and violence. The three main characters—Sergeant Holloway, Lieutenant Evans, and Colonel Colours—are members of an artillery battalion in Italy. The emphasis is less on their relations to the enemy than on their relations to one another and to the battalion, and on their desperate efforts to be responsible in situations where responsibility itself has become morally suspect. The story begins somewhere south of Cassino and ends on a lonely farm north of Rome out of range of battle. The predicaments in which the men find themselves, the choices and decisions they faced, are those not only of war but also of modern life in general.

KEYES, F. P. *Joy Street*. New York 18: Julian Messner, 1950. 508 pp. \$3.00. The

scene of this story is Beacon Hill in Boston. On Joy Street, Roger Field and Emily Thayer chose one of the fine old houses for their bridal home, unaware that nearby dwelt an Italian family by the name of de Lucca. It is the story of the conflicts among the different classes which made up this section of Beacon Hill. Roger and Emily believed that these different elements would meet and merge harmoniously, *Joy Street* is the story of what happened to this belief, how it was tried, how it failed—and how it succeeded.

KIERAN, JOHN, editor. *The 1951 Information Please Almanac*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 1950. 869 pp. \$2.00. This is the latest edition of this famous essential information almanac. In comparison to former issues, this latest

form includes additional features—an enlarged United States section with expanded historical and statistical accounts of the various states and individual towns—an 18-page Crossword Puzzle Guide giving, as Mr. Kieran puts it, "first aid, and, in some cases the last word, to crossword puzzlers who nibble on pencils and wish they could think of a three-letter word meaning apricot in Japanese"—over 900 pages of information for reading, study, and quick-reference in the home, school, and office. All sections have been brought completely up to date. It is published not only in a cloth-bound, jacketed edition, but in a paper-bound edition as well.

LANDELS, T. D. *The Secret of Happiness*. Boston 20: The Christopher Publishing

House, 1951. 80 pp. \$1.75. In this volume, the author formulates the thesis that true happiness is at all times within the reach of every man, because such happiness depends not so much upon the changing outward circumstances of life, as upon the inward spirit with which life is faced. It points to the joy of Jesus as the supreme exemplification of the truest human happiness and enumerates the sources from which that joy sprang. It points out that these same sources are available to all men; and, if they be accepted and applied day by day, may produce the same results. Each chapter of the book is prefaced by an original sonnet, a brief "overture" summarizing the main thought of the chapter.

LAURENCE, W. L. *The Hell Bomb*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, 1950. 210

pp. \$2.75. This is a breath-taking story of the hydrogen bomb. This is a non-technical presentation of all the facts, hitherto available only to a few scientists, that can be told. As such, it is an antidote against fear and hysteria, which may prove more dangerous than the H-bomb itself.

Just what is a hydrogen bomb? Can it really be made? How much will it cost? Can Russia make it? Will it lead to the extinction of all life on earth? Is its production morally justifiable? Can it be internationally controlled? How

will it affect military strategy? Will we use it? Is it a deterrent to war? All these and other questions are fully and frankly answered. The concluding chapter is a remarkably clear and simple "Primer of Atomic Energy," as distinct from the H-bomb, with which the rest of the book deals.

LEWIS, ALFRED. *Home Is an Island*. New York 22: Random House. 1951. 308 pp. \$3.00. This is the story of a boy's life in the Azores from his early childhood to his departure from his island home to make his fortune in America. From this simple theme, Alfred Lewis has created a novel that is three dimensional and wholly satisfying, a complete world of fresh and primitive beauty.

MALKUS, ALIDA. *Colt of Destiny*. Philadelphia 7: John C. Winston Company. 1950. 256 pp. \$2.50. The development of the Franciscan missions and the capture and training of wild horses that had escaped from earlier Spanish settlers, give this tale a solid historic basis. Young Jaime Otero, forerunner of a family famous in California history, plays an important part in the early days of the development of the Golden State. It is Jaime who captures Starlight and her mate—two of the wild horses that roamed the plains and valleys of this part of America. Jaime fights cruel Spanish landowners and savage Indians to bring civilization to the West Coast, and supports Father Junipero Serra in establishing the chain of Franciscan missions. Against a background of unrest and superstition, he painstakingly trains horses that were bred into a strain invaluable to later American pioneers.

MATTHES, F. E. *Sequoia, National Park*. Berkeley 4: University of California Press. 1950. 146 pp. \$3.75. This geological album interprets the principal features of a region remarkable for its grandeur. It contains more than one hundred photographs with concise annotations which interpret the geologic evidence illustrated. The photographs include views ranging from the Sierra foothills, a few hundred feet above sea level, to spectacular Mr. Whitney (altitude 14,496 feet) highest point in continental United States.

MELADY, J. H. *The Nature Dictionary*. New York 18: World Publishing Company. 1950. 120 pp. \$2.00. This is a picture guide to living things. The book is filled with facts about birds, animals, fish, insects, flowers, trees, and butterflies arranged in alphabetical order. There are 500 full-color drawings. Each definition offers not only essential information but also additional facts helpful and interesting to the reader.

MOLLOY, ROBERT. *Pound Foolish*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1950. 307 pp. \$3.00. In this comedy of manners the author presents a gay and gentle tale, warm in sympathy and rich in humor. The scene is laid in Charleston in 1914. It is an unhappy summer for Henri Lemay as he becomes ever more deeply involved in his schemes for saving his beloved niece and ward.

MONTGOMERY, MABEL. *A Courageous Conquest*. New York 10: Globe Book Company. 1951. 203 pp. \$1.84. This story gives its readers a pen picture of Roosevelt, the humanitarian, in terms understandable to both the teen-ager and the adult. Dramatic episodes of the late president are presented so as to inspire sympathy and emulation. It is the story of a lad unspoiled by riches, of a college student interested in campus leadership, of a young man crusading against machine politics, of a president who dared to accept and furnish leadership in a time of crisis, of a world leader fighting for peace, and of a gentleman who, having experienced personal disaster, believed in the dignity and rights of every individual.

MOODY, RALPH. *Little Britches*. New York 3: W. W. Norton and Company. 1950. 260 pp. \$3.00. While this is the story of an unusual father and an irrepressible son, it is a story of a family living on a ranch near Denver, Colorado—of Ralph Moody's boyhood, full of realness, sincerity, and affection.

- MORRIS, A. C., collector and editor. *Folksongs of Florida*. Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1950. 482 pp. \$7.50. This is a collection of 243 folksongs selected from all parts of Florida by Mr. Morris. They are grouped under two large subdivisions: songs of the new world and songs of the old world. As a result of the cosmopolitan origin of the population of Florida, the collection has a great variety of songs, so that, besides representing folksongs of the state, it gives a cross-section of American folksongs. Not only does Mr. Morris give the words and, in many instances, the music, but he also presents these songs in their historical perspective, in reference to the communities in which they flourished, in relation to the lives of the individual singers, and as a part of the whole picture of American folksong. Through these songs we learn how people sang, danced, and played when Florida was young.
- NEVINS, A. J. *The Adventures of Wu Han of Korea*. New York 10: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1951. 244 pp. \$2.50. Wu Han sold chestnuts on the streets in the city of Pyongyang, Korea, for his self-appointed, good-for-nothing guardian. One day some tricksters stole Wu Han's chestnuts and he was afraid to go back to One-Eye, his cruel master. Thereupon his adventures began. More fortunate than many a homeless orphan in other parts of the world, Wu Han fell into the hands of the God-fearing father of a fine young farming family. Soon he had given up the city streets for the beautiful countryside and had left his wretched hovel for a happy home. But his perils were not ended, for One-Eye pursued him and the rugged regions offered many dangers, from icy trails to wild tigers. And thereby hangs a rapidly moving tale.
- New American Webster Dictionary*. New York 22: The New American Library of World Literature, 1951. 414 pp. 25c. The purpose of this dictionary is to supply the spelling, syllabication, and pronunciation of the most useful English words and to define their principal meaning. This pocket-sized dictionary is based on the principles of spelling and pronunciation introduced by Noah Webster. The type is clear and the definitions are short.
- NIALL, IAN. *The Deluge*. New York 16: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, 1951. 283 pp. \$3.00. In dramatic Welsh prose the author tells the story of people whose lives moved unaltered beneath the roar of water and rising floods—Maggie Snell, the innkeepers' domineering, gossiping wife; the blackmailer who visited the Lanes; Mary Douglas, the daughter of a quarreling, miserable, thwarted mother and a well-meaning but hard-drinking father. This is not only the account of a small town's reaction when disaster strikes, but the story of everyday people, their petty quarrels, their heartbreaks, their joys.
- O'FAOLAIN, SEAN. *The Short Story*. New York 10: Devin-Adair Company, 1951. 384 pp. \$3.75. *The Short Story* analyzes with intimate understanding "the personal problem behind the literary problem." It emphasizes the personal "voltage" that a good writer must put into a story. To illustrate his argument, O'Faolain has built up three fascinating chapters on the lives of Daudet, Chekov, and Maupassant, that reveal how a writing personality is formed. This personal approach leads into more technical phases—subject, construction, language, convention. Continually O'Faolain quotes, in illustration, from the great short story writers of past and present. Keenly aware of the qualities of the older writers—Stevenson, Henry James, Chekov—he is sensitive also to the changes that time has wrought; and he calls to witness the quick burst, the electric suggestiveness of today's Saroyan, Hemingway, Frank O'Connor.
- OSGOOD, CORNELIUS. *The Koreans and Their Culture*. New York 10: Ronald Press Company, 1951. 403 pp. \$5.00. The author takes us first to a typical contemporary farming village on the island of Kangwha, where for several months he and two native aides participated in the life of the community. From Kangwha and its rice fields the scene shifts to the capital at Seoul for an illuminating

view of the upper ruling class around the turn of the century, before the picture became blurred by successive upheavals. The book next presents an outline of the little known political history of Korea. It is followed by a resumé of the many facets of Korean culture—a culture which, though borrowing heavily from “elder brother” China, nevertheless flowered into distinctive social, religious, artistic, and intellectual contributions to Oriental civilization. The concluding chapters, dealing with the period of Japanese annexation, the Russian and American occupations, and the climactic events of 1950, result from a study of contemporary commentaries, plus the authors personal observations and discussions with individuals directly involved.

PACKER, H. Q., and WATERMAN, M. E. *Basic Retailing*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, 1951. 393 pp. In this new text will be found much valuable, up-to-date information about retailing principles and practices used in operating today's large and small stores. The book is conveniently divided into learning units and activities correlated with the main divisions of actual store work. Each chapter contains problems, discussion questions, and suggested student activities. Each chapter features “committee-projects”—a carefully tested and developed program of student participation in store activities. All reading matter, questions, problems, student activities, and “committee-projects” are the outgrowth of extensive classroom testing. Each chapter contributes to the preparation of the student for a career in retailing. For example, chapter III shows how to apply psychology in dealing with various types of customers, while chapter IV contains helpful hints on how to close the sale itself.

PARK, RUTH. *12½ Plymouth Street*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1951. 312 pp. \$3.00. As the novel opens, the elder daughter, Roie, is married to her adoring Charlie Rothe, and there is the brat, Motty, to liven things up in the crowded tenement at 12½ Plymouth Street. But this is essentially the book of Dolour, “the little sister,” socially isolated and emotionally starved, but of a spiritual toughness that knows no defeat. From her awkward adolescence the reader follows her, through a series of tragedies, great and small, hilarious and pathetic, to the ultimate rewards of hope and faith.

PATTERSON, S. H.; LITTLE, A. W. S.; and BURCH, H. R. *Problems in American Democracy*. New York 11: Macmillan Company. 1951. 650 pp. \$3.48. In this volume the authors have attempted to give students a realistic presentation of the fundamental economic, social, and political problems in our American democracy. Through a study of the chief issues in public life, it is hoped that the boys and girls in our high schools will be better prepared to assume their grave responsibilities as well-informed citizens in the world of tomorrow. The book maintains the convenient organization of earlier editions by a division into four teachable units. This relationship determines the sequence of the text. After a brief introductory section on the fundamentals of American democracy, its economic problems are treated in the second part of the book, its social phases in the third part, and finally, political problems in the fourth or concluding section. International, as well as national, phases of democracy are stressed. The chapters within each part are subdivided—alphabetical markings for major divisions of problems, and numerals to indicate important topics within the divisions. Problems are presented through discussion, first, of their causes; second, of their historical development; and third, of the possibilities of their solution. A wide range of problems meets the needs of all courses of study. Overemphasis of certain problems at the expense of others has been avoided. Adequate presentation of all important problems is provided.

RANDALL, K. C. *Wild Hunter*. New York 17: Franklin Watts, 1951. 236 pp. \$2.50. Al bought Princess and brought her to the Club, only two weeks before the pheasant season opened. And shy, undersized young Bob came to share in her training. Before the season was over, the Club members knew that Al and Bob

had found themselves a great dog. Then, in the second season, swift disaster struck, and Bob, heart-broken, fought for Princess—fought against the sensible advice of the grownups and the hard-won knowledge of the experts. How his love and persistence and courage helped a beaten dog, and an old man caught in a crisis—to say nothing of the boy himself and his worried, devoted parents—makes a story alive with excitement and a warm humanity—one that will appeal to all those who love dogs and hunting, and out-of-doors.

RANDOLPH, JENNINGS, and BELL, J. A. *"Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen."*

Washington, D. C.: Southeastern University Bookstore, 1951. 169 pp. \$3.00. In this book the reader will find the practical guides to effective public speaking. The authors sincerely believe tangible dividends are available to the person who earnestly desires to overcome the barriers which face the student, the salesman, the businessman, the professional leader, the industry executive—in fact, the unnumbered folk who have on occasion been asked to speak in public. Do you lack poise and self-confidence in the presence of others? Do your knees shake when you stand before an audience? Are you embarrassed when called on unexpectedly to think and express opinions while on your feet? Do you talk with clarity and persuasion, or do the words stick in your throat? Can you preside at meetings, conferences, and conventions or do you muddle through the task? In these pages are the workable answers to such questions.

RANSON, JO, and PACK, RICHARD. *Opportunities in Television*. New York 10: Grosset and Dunlap, 1950. 128 pp. \$1.00. The authors, aware of the significance of the multiplicity of jobs represented in television present a wealth of information about this expanding field. They include advice from leading TV experts, network employment requirements, a glossary of terms used in the field, and training suggestions.

RAWSON, C. B. *Opportunities in Motor Transportation*. New York 10: Grosset and Dunlap, 1951. 112 pp. \$1.00. This is one of a series of some 25 vocational guidance manuals being published by this company. The author presents information on the many jobs in the bus and trucking industries. He also discusses union affiliation, employment practices, and opportunities in related fields.

REIFENBURG, A. *Ancient Hebrew Arts*. New York 17: Schocken Books Inc., 342 Madison Avenue, 1950. 172 pp. \$5.00. This volume presents art remains of Jewish antiquity in over 200 pictures with explanatory text. The book covers a period of more than 1500 years from the time of the Kings of the sixth or seventh century C. E. In it are depicted and explained the various phases of Hebraic art, from its beginnings when the Israelites were entirely dependent on neighboring peoples, through the periods following when art and the applied arts had developed toward a genuine creative expression.

RICHARDSON, M. *College Algebra*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, 1947. 490 pp. In this textbook the author has attempted to combine lucid explanation of procedures with reasonable motivation for and justification of the processes, at the student's level. The early chapters constitute a thorough review of elementary algebra arranged as a self-contained development from first principles, with careful explanations of the most elementary matters. No accurate recollection of high-school algebra is required if the book is taken from the beginning. However, the review is presented in a more mature way than would be possible with first-year high-school students; this plan enables the instructor to take up the material with a group of students having widely varying degrees of preparation without boring the better-prepared students.

Technical terms are carefully defined, and ample lists of exercises are provided. Starred exercises are more difficult than others, and starred sections may be omitted in a short course without disturbing the continuity of the book. Stress is laid upon explanation of fundamental concepts and reasoning which the math-

ematics and science major is often over-optimistically expected to absorb by osmosis. The later chapters are arranged as far as possible to be independent of each other, to provide for maximum elasticity in the choice of material. Where earlier material is prerequisite, cross references are provided. Many practical applications are included in the exercises.

SACK, ALBERT. *Fine Points of Furniture, Early American*. New York 16: Crown Publishers. 1950. 319 pp. \$4.00. This book containing 800 photographs presents an analysis is through picture and text of the various elements of design, decoration, craftsmanship, construction, and finish of early American furniture, showing with each type discussed three examples—good, better, best—and comparing the relative merits and consequent value differentials of each. It explains why superficially similar pieces of furniture of the same approximate age and scarcity, and possibly by the same maker, may vary considerably in desirability and worth. More than 100 types are discussed, and more than 300 examples are illustrated.

SACKS, JACOB. *The Atom at Work*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co. 1951. 339 pp. \$4.00. The purpose of this book is to present the whole story of atomic energy in a readable and understandable style. It is intended for the reader who wants to know what scientists are doing today to develop the constructive uses of atomic energy, aside from fashioning weapons of war. To give a background of what preceded today's marvelous uses of atomic energy. Dr. Sacks devotes the first half of his book to a history of the tremendous sweep of events which led up to the Curies' discovery of radioactivity, and from this monumental research achievement to the time when scientists discovered how to break atoms apart and produce radioactivity. The second half of the book, then, is a progress report on how isotopes are being used today to make a better and more helpful world.

SCHORLING, RALEIGH; CLARK, J. R.; and SMITH, R. R. *Modern-School Geometry*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co. 1948. 448 pp. This book has been specifically designed to meet the demands and requirements of modern education. In this respect the authors have given careful consideration to the excellent suggestions in the Second Report of the Commission on Post-War Plans and particularly to the following pertinent theses: "teachers of the traditional sequential courses must emphasize functional competence in mathematics; the main objective of the sequential courses should be to develop mathematical power; the work of each year should be organized into a few large units built around key concepts and fundamental principles; and simple and sensible applications to many fields must appear much more frequently in the sequential courses than they have in the past."

Some of the features of the book are: (1) arithmetic and algebra are used in geometric situations to provide functional competence; (2) mathematical power is developed through understanding; (3) the work is organized into large units built around key concepts and fundamental principles; and (4) applications are made to other fields. Historical notes and pertinent photographs have been introduced and practical uses of the subject set forth. The student is introduced to the applications of geometry to aeronautics and to the importance of geometry in modern science and industry. The arrangement of the pages, in both type and illustration, has been planned to give the book an inviting appearance and to facilitate reading for understanding.

SCHULBERG, BUDD. *The Disenchanted*. New York 22: Random House. 1950. 388 pp. \$3.50. This is a tragic love story comparing values of the Twenties and Thirties to the present century. Manly Holliday was an affluent person in the Twenties living "on top of the world" with his beautiful wife. His wealth, his artistic gift, his social grace, and his flair for living made him an outstanding and famous figure. But ten years later this world had crashed and Manly, broke and broken and nearly forgotten, found himself in a heroic last-ditch struggle for survival.

SEWELL, ANNA. *Black Beauty*. New York 10: Globe Book Co. 1951. 348 pp. \$1.84.

Edward G. Punkay, Principal of the Mulligan School of Chicago, has adapted this book to current American English. British idioms have been translated in good American idioms. The original text has been shortened without losing any of the story, the dialogue has been modernized and long stretches of narrative of exposition have been visualized by conversation; thus making the reading of this classic more interesting to today's youth. The book also contains searching comprehension questions for the brighter and more ambitious pupil.

SHAW, LAU. *The Yellow Storm*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1951. 533 pp.

\$4.00. The street in Peiping called The Little Sheep Fold contains seven compounds and is like a small village within the great city. The simple folk who live there meet the challenge of the Japanese occupation with varying degrees of cowardice or fortitude, of corruption or integrity. In the house of the four generations live the lovable patriarch of The Little Sheep Fold, Old Man Chi; Rey Shuan, his grandson, caught between conflicting loyalties to country, children, wife, parents, and grandfather; and Old Three, who, "when the wind whistles," is off to war. No one lives alone in The Little Sheep Fold, and out of the intertwining loves and hates, heroisms and degradations of these men and women grows a rich tapestry of Asian life. The beautiful city of Peiping, with its parks and waterways, its immemorial traditions and steadying philosophy, forms the background for the fierce intensity of the present drama.

SHEPARD, ODELL and WILLARD. *Jenkin's Ear*. New York 11: Macmillan Co.

1951. 474 pp. \$3.50. This is historical fiction of exciting interest. The War of Jenkins' Ear began in 1739 when a captain of a Spanish warship allegedly tore off the ear of an English merchant captain. From this incident came such events as Clive's campaigns in India, Commodore Anson's voyages around South America, the Battle of Fontenoy, the French and Indian Wars, and Prince Charles Edward's attempt to gain the throne of England in 1745. The narrative is attributed to Horace Walpole, owner of the famous Strawberry Hill, with reference to his letter in October 1755 to The Reverend William Cole, in which he writes of "the most wonderful week" he had ever lived.

SPURRIER, W. A. *Power for Action*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1948.

214 pp. \$2.50. Here is a clear, simple, and incisive statement of Christian ethics and its relevance to the problems of living faced by everyone today. The author feels that a Christian ethical standard must derive directly from the Christian religion, since man's reason alone, unbacked by religion, is inadequate to solve the inevitable problems which we must face. He demonstrates how the principles of Christianity can be translated into responsible ethical action. The author first discusses the ethical problems of society at large—dealing with such pressing questions as war and peace, economics, politics, labor, racial relations, and social culture. He then turns to the problems of the individual—personal goodness, conversion, sex and marriage, and one's relationship to his community and to his church.

SHERLING, E. L.; OLSON, H. F.; and HUSEBY, HAROLD. *English Language*

Series. 1950. Book 1, 522 pp.; Book 2, 529 pp.; Book 3, 554 pp.; Book 4, 501 pp. New York 10: Henry Holt and Co. This is a 4-book series for use in the upper four years of the junior-senior high-school span. The series is organized on a cycle basis of reception, reflection, and expression. The cycle begins with the reception of ideas and progresses to an ordering of those ideas. In the four books, the use of language is closely integrated with the four main areas of human living as set forth by the Educational Policies Commission in 1938. These are *self-realization*, *human relationships*, *economic efficiency*, and *civic responsibility*. A *Teacher's Handbook* charts the specific ways to help pupils progress toward these important human goals.

The format emphasizes the content and method in these books. Every chapter has the same organization. First, the reading selection and the theme passage set the social and language goals. Next, come the explanations that stimulate learning: the activity assignments with exercises, the testing program, and the integrated reading selections. Finally, the suggestions at the ends of chapters continue application of the abilities and skills learned. Always the student is encouraged to undertake an interesting activity which, under teacher inspiration, he should wish to continue. Then he is introduced to the supporting language skills that are required by that activity. A typographical pattern distinguishes each part of the chapter content, making the book a readily usable instrument for teaching, testing, and reteaching. The many illustrations promote better learning through the visualization of ideas. The Reference Section summarizes for the student modern forms, practices, and usage, and affords him a ready source of information for the skills he will need to master.

The series contains a carefully integrated program of evaluation of student progress and development. Many instructional aids such as films, recorders, recordings, radio, television, bulletin board displays, charts, pictures, and a reference section are included in each book of the series. Each book contains an introduction, explanations, assignments, drills, and evaluation.

STRANSKY, JAN. *East Wind Over Prague*. New York 22: Random House. 1951. 253 pp. \$3.00. In this book the author gives a vivid and terrifying personal account of a communist's methods in his country—of his first escape, his exile, and his return to his homeland, then under Soviet domination. The book does not try to analyze either the well-known communist theories or their application. It limits itself purposely and strictly to the study of certain specific conditions which arose in Europe and throughout the world through war and German occupation—conditions which serve as the feeding ground of international communism.

STURGIS, A. F. *Sturgis Standard Code of Parliamentary Procedure*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1950. 294 pp. \$2.50. This is a handbook of parliamentary procedure that is modern, comprehensive, authoritative, and easy to use. In the most simple and logical manner it presents the rules of modern parliamentary law for organizations, clubs, civic groups, and governing bodies. The first part of the book discusses principles of procedure and general rules: order of business, presentation and precedence of motions, methods and procedure of voting, etc. Part II explains how to set up a new organization, how to write its constitution, by-laws, and standing rules, the duties of officers and committees, the rights of members, etc. Part II is a detailed reference guide to motions.

TEBBEL, JOHN. *The Conqueror*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1951. 352 pp. \$3.00. This historical novel is the story of handsome, young, and virile William Johnson who arrived in Colonial New York from Ireland with high hopes but no definite plans for improving his fortune. His American uncle, Sir Peter Warren, suggests that the Mohawk Valley, far from the temptations of New York, might improve his nephew's prospects. With Michael Byrne, ward of Sir Peter, William is sent into the wilderness, there to oversee Sir Peter's vast land holdings and open up trade with the Indians. William finds this much to his liking and is soon made a member of the Mohawk tribe and becomes a leader in the struggle between the English and the French.

THOMAS, E. L. *The Whole World Singing*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1950. 128 pp. \$2.75. This is an international songbook since it contains songs and ballads representative of many countries of the world. It is a collection of almost 100 songs, ballads, hymns, etc., grouped in the index according to the countries (38) from which the music comes.

THOMAS, LOWELL, JR. *Out of This World*. New York 13: The Greystone Press. 1950. 320 pp. \$3.75. Here is an invitation to high adventure. It is Lowell Thomas, Jr.'s exciting story of the dangerous journey he and his father made from India,

over the towering Himalayas, and into an amazing real-life Shangri-La—the Forbidden Land of Tibet.

TRESSLER, J. C., and SHELMAINE, M. B. *Junior English in Action*. 1951. Book 1, 448 pp. \$2.12; Book 2, 447 pp., \$2.12; Book 3, 512 pp., \$2.28. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co. The fifth edition of this series retains the flexible organization of former editions. Many new features have been added such as new cartoons; new content; new pupil-written paragraphs, stories, letters, dramatizations, and reports; added stress on understanding the varied meanings of words and of using words correctly; increased emphasis on orientation to school life, social courtesy, and developing skills in listening and talking; new sentence examples; additional pages of drill materials on grammar, usage, sentence structure, punctuation, and spelling; review exercises; etc. Each book is divided into two parts — language activities and a handbook of grammar and usage. Provision is made for the varying abilities of pupils. The text contains many varied diagnostic and mastery tests so constructed that both the teacher and pupil can score them quickly and accurately.

TRUE, W. P. *The Smithsonian*. New York 10: Sheridan House, 1950. 306 pp. \$3.50. Although the Smithsonian Institution has grown to be over a hundred years old, no full-length account of its various collections and fascinating activities has been written until Mr. True put them down here. Founded through a generous bequest by a lonely Englishman who had never visited this country, the Smithsonian, usually identified with its headquarters in the quaint Norman castle that attracts sightseers on the Mall in Washington, D.C., also includes such Washington buildings as the United States National Museum, with its collection of national history, science, invention, and American historical treasures; the National Gallery of Art, with its outstanding collection of paintings, prints, and sculpture; the Freer Gallery of Art, whose Oriental art collection is unique; the National Zoological Park with its 3,500 animals; the National Air Museum, whose aeronautical collections are divided in various buildings; the Bureau of American Ethnology, that giant repository of information about the Indians of America; the Astrophysical Observatory, which has pioneered in studies of the Sun; the International Exchange Service; and the Canal Zone Biological Area.

TUTT, CLARA. *Across the Shining Mountains*. New York 16: Exposition Press 1950. 135 pp. \$2.00. This is a collection of historically accurate adventure stories for children about the settling of the great Pacific Northwest and the attempt to find a "Northwest Passage." It presents factual information in the form of exciting fiction. "The book," according to the author, "is not intended to be a history book in the usual sense of the word, but attempts to take the reader into the personal lives of some of the early adventurers and, through those experiences, show how the wilderness of two hundred years ago gradually became the land of speed and power of today." Miss Tutt tells of the trials of many explorers as they searched for the fabulous Northwest Passage. She shows how long after eastern North America had been settled, ship owners continued to hunt for an easy route to China, and how trappers and settlers sought to find passes through the mountains to desirable home lands beyond the Great Divide.

WARD, BRAD. *Canyon Country*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1951. 257 pp. \$2.50. Young Dene was determined to prove to his father that he could become a rancher in a big way. Earning money quickly at first, he and his partner, Sego, invest almost all of it in a ranch they have never seen. When they arrive at Thief River Ranch to take over, they find the place has been dynamited and burned, and that 5000 head of cattle are missing. In their efforts to rebuild their property, they uncover a nasty mess which includes a nest of rustlers, a masked bandit, a very crooked politician, and some dirty-dealing ranchers. To Dene's great surprise he also renews acquaintance with Verla, a childhood sweetheart whom he hasn't seen since she went East to school.

WEST, JESSAMYN. *The Witch Diggers*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1951. 441 pp. \$3.50. This is the story of Link Conboy, the father, who gave up his law practice to serve as superintendent of a Poor Farm; of Cate, his daughter who couldn't reconcile her emotions, upon falling in love, with the strict code of her upbringing; of Christie, her lover, whose sense of honor and honesty led to the final catastrophe for which all believed themselves responsible; of Em Bonboy, struggling with the problems of precocious adolescence; of Lib, the mother, forthright and likable, whose plans for her family never seemed to work out; and of James and Mary Abel, cultists, who believed that truth, hidden by the Devil underground, could only be found by digging for it. The author brings these memorable characters to life in creating scenes like the train-ride which opens her story, Cate and Christie's visit to the Orpheus Club's songfest, Em's bedtime conversation, and Christmas day at the poor farm.

WHIPPLE, GERTRUDE, and JAMES, P. E. *Neighbors On Our Earth*. New York 11: The Macmillan Co. 1950. 352 pp. This book for grades seven or eight presents a study of the typical pre-industrial culture which, because of the feudal background of the Mediterranean peoples who settled Latin America, has persisted in both areas to the present time. The problems of the present-day geography of both areas are illuminated by an understanding of the impact of modern industrialization, from the United States and western Europe, on the pre-industrial culture. The book contains many study helps such as maps, pictures, and illustrations. Each section of the book contains thought questions and a short list of geographic terms with their meanings. A teacher manual accompanies the text.

WILHELMS, F. T. *Consumer Living*. New York 18: Gregg Publishing Co. 1951. 608 pp. \$3.20. This is the culminating work of the Consumer Education Study sponsored by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. It is the result of six years of research by the entire staff of that Study. Every section of the book was checked for accuracy by top experts in the subject to which the section is devoted. Furthermore, prior to publication, the material in this text was widely tested. Virtually every unit in the book is a condensation of the most valuable material and the most workable teaching aids used in the corresponding units of the Consumer Education Series produced by the Consumer Education Study. Those units were used by hundreds of teachers, many of whom reported their experience.

Consumer Living treats its subject fully. It includes areas of consuming that are of growing interest and importance, especially to young people. For example, the area of recreation, heretofore virtually ignored in consumer books, is given a solid and stimulating treatment in this text. Similarly, the economics of medical care — choosing medical aid and financing it soundly — is presented practically. Heretofore most books have discussed investment in terms of stocks and bonds and real estate — all remote from the life of the student. This book tackles investment realistically as the problem of "investing in yourself" — of plowing back spare funds in order to get a better start and improve one's resources along the way. It deliberately attempts to parallel, in writing, the most modern techniques of teaching. Material is presented in broad problem-centered units, which are grouped around a few major themes.

At every step the individual's interests are interwoven with a social point of view. Interesting and practical problems and projects are interspersed at timely points throughout the text. Also, short thought sections, designed to focus the student's attention on everyday facts that are of importance to the consumer and of which he may not be aware are inserted throughout at opportune places. A careful effort was also made to write the text in simple language and an easy-going style. The book is illustrated liberally with well-chosen pictures, charts, diagrams, and cartoons.

WINSLOW, KATHRYN. *Big Pan-Out*. New York 3: W. W. Norton and Co. 1951. 247 pp. \$3.75. This is a collective biography of the thousands of men and women — some famous, a few notorious, most of them unknown — who shared adventure along the gold creeks of the Yukon. Kathryn Winslow became interested in the Klondike when an old recluse, whom she had never met, willed her his books and papers. She was fascinated by the two full diaries he had kept during the gold rush. These led the way to a vast amount of research on the subject — the result of which is *Big Pan-Out*.

WYLIE, PHILIP. *The Disappearance*. New York 16: Rinehart and Co. 1951. 411 pp. \$3.50. "The female of the species vanished on the afternoon of the second Tuesday of February at four minutes and fifty-two seconds past four o'clock Eastern Standard Time." This is the startling opening sentence of *The Disappearance*. In the second chapter, the women learned that all the men have disappeared at precisely the same time — and just as inexplicably. With uncanny imagination, in passages of comedy, deep passion, unexpected tenderness, Philip Wylie gives you the four post-disappearance years in the men's womanless world, four parallel years in woman's manless world. He tells you what happened to sex, electricity, the Kremlin; to the housewife, the philosopher, the lover, the bum; to science, sin, and God. Most of all, he tells what happened to love.

XAN, E. O. *Wisconsin My Home*. Madison 5: University of Wisconsin Press. 1950. 242 pp. \$3.75. The author tells the story of early life in Wisconsin as told to her by her mother Thurine. Thurine was born in 1866, the eighth daughter of Norwegian immigrants who settled on a farm in the town of Winchester. It is the story of hardship and of happiness, of courtship and marriage. This should be an interesting book to students of American history and of civics—through its reading they will secure a keener appreciation of early American life and of what their forefathers endured that they might have a free America.

Pamphlets for Pupil and Teacher Use

American Educational Catalog. New York 19: R. R. Bowker Co. 1950. Unpaged. \$1.00. A classified catalog of 7500 textbooks with author index. The 1951 edition will come off the press in April.

The American Jewish Committee, 386 Fourth Ave., New York 16, Publications of.

Antidote to Barbarism. Against interracial strife.

Church, State and Education. 24 pp. A bibliography.

The Communists—Friends or Foes of Civil Liberties? 24 pp. The dilemma of according civil liberties to Communists in a democracy.

Radio and Television Bulletin. 35 pp. Available pro-Democracy scripts and recordings.

Selected List of Human Relations Films. 28 pp. 15c. Nontheatrical films with human relations themes.

The American National Red Cross, Washington 18, D. C., Publications of.

American Red Cross First Aid Textbook. 254 pp. Paper, 60c; cloth, \$1.00.

American Red Cross First Aid Textbook for Juniors. 132 pp. \$1.00. A special text for grades 7-9.

Civil Defense Supplement to the American Red Cross First Aid Textbook. 55 pp. 10c.

Medical Uses of Blood. 1950. 16 pp. Available free from Red Cross Chapters. A manual for secondary-school teachers, prepared by a committee appointed by the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, in co-operation with the American National Red Cross.

Program for Secondary Schools. American Junior Red Cross. September, 1950. 19 pp. Available free from Red Cross chapters. A survey of Red Cross activities and training programs in secondary schools.

- Red Cross Home Nursing.* 1950. 235 pp. 60c. Prepared under the supervision of Nursing Services, American Red Cross.
- Red Cross Home Nursing Civil Defence Supplement.* 1951. 10 pp. Available free from Red Cross chapters to students of Home Nursing.
- 31st Annual Report.* New York 19: Institute of International Education. 2 W. 45th St. 1951. 84 pp. A report on the growth of international educational exchange between the United States and foreign countries.
- Annual Report.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Commission on Safety Education, NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1950. 13 pp. A report of the year's work in various phases of safety education.
- Annual Report for the Year 1950.* Wilmington, Del.: E. I. duPont de Nemours and Co. 1951. 50 pp. A graphic financial and operating summary which indicates trends in the company's chemical industry.
- Annual Report of the Bureau of School Services.* Ann Arbor: Univ. of Mich. Dec. 26, 1950. A summary of the Bureau's services to the schools of the state: some comparisons with reports of former years; tabulated statistical data on organization and enrollment; and a list of secondary schools accredited with the University.
- Annual Report of the Federal Security Agency.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1951. 38 pp. 20c. A resumé of trends, accomplishments, problems, emphases, federal participation in education, and publications issued.
- Annual Report to the Board of Trustees.* Princeton, N. J.: Educational Testing Service, 20 Nassau St. 1950. 79 pp. Report on research, administration, programs, specific testing projects undertaken.
- Atomic Energy Commission, Washington 25, D. C., Publications of.
- ABC's of Radiation.* 28 pp.
- All A-Bombs Can Be Converted to Peacetime Uses.* 10 pp.
- Atomic Engines—When and How.* 7 pp.
- The Atom May Save Your Life.* 4 pp.
- AEC Contract Policy and Operations.* January 1951. 158 pp. 40c.
- Education for Nuclear Engineering.* 8 pp.
- Selected Readings on Atomic Energy.* 12 pp.
- Australian News and Information Bureau, 635 Fifth Ave., New York 20, N. Y., Publications of.
- Film Catalog.* This lists briefly but factually 18 fascinating 16-mm. color films and 62 16-mm. black and white films about Australia, with purchase prices and rental charges. All films have sound.
- Filmstrip with Guide.* Our recent film-strip entitled "Australia—Country with a Future" has 74 frames. The pictures are recent and the teacher's guide is comprehensive and interesting. \$1.65 including postage.
- Know Australia.* A small pocket-sized booklet, posing 100 questions on phases of the Australian way of life and answering them simply.
- A Look at Australia.* A most useful booklet which compresses into 32 pages, 11 in. x 8½ in., the Australian story from January, 1788, when the first settlers reached Sydney, until the present day. Attractively illustrated and printed on art paper.
- Geography of Australia.* This geography and social reference series provides a course for study for intermediate grades.
- Maps.* A series of maps of Australia, highlighting unusual features and containing essential information; large colored detailed wall map and small black and white resources map also available.
- BAREAU, PAUL. *The Sterling Area.* New York 20: British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza. 1950. 20 pp. What the sterling area is and how it works, by an economist and financial journalist of prominent London papers.

- Better Than Rating.* Washington 6, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA. 1950. 83 pp. \$1.25. Discount on quantity orders: 2-9 copies 10%; 10-19 copies, 25%; 100 or more, 33 1/3%. New approaches to appraisal of teaching services. Examines basic issues; analyzes current teacher-rating plans; shows how these plans affect the school program; makes constructive proposals for organizing the school community for professional growth.
- The Blue Book of 16-mm. Films.* Chicago 1, Educational Screen, 64 E. Lake St. 1951. 176 pp. \$1.50. This is an indexed compilation of 7,200 16-mm. motion picture titles. Educational films on almost every subject and grade level are included, along with hundreds of industrial training films and religious titles. In addition to the sources for all the films, other data are included such as a short description of the content of each film, whether available in color, black and white, or both, and whether the films are silent or sound. Three indexes insure easy selection, either by title or by subject matter.
- BOULWARE, L. R. *Management's Hottest Problem.* New York 22: United World Industry Service, 445 Park Ave. 1949. 16 pp. Speech and panel discussion of the New York Chapter of the Society for Advancement of Management.
- Broadcasting to Schools (UNESCO).* New York 27: Columbia University Press, 1951. 215 pp. \$1.00. Reports on the organization of school broadcasting services in various countries.
- Bulletin of Education.* Lawrence, Kansas: School of Education, University of Kansas. Feb. 1951. 24 pp. Articles on public relations, teaching methods, tests. Listing of these completed during 1948, 1949, and 1950.
- Bulletin on Current Literature.* Chicago 3: The National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, 11 S. La Salle St. January, 1951. 20 pp. A bibliography for workers with the handicapped. Publications listed are in the loan collection of the Society's library.
- BYRD, O. E. *Health Instruction Guide.* Visalia, Calif.: Tulare County Schools, Bin 911. 1950. 151 pp. \$4.00. Teaching outlines and learning units for the secondary level—a co-operatively developed part of a co-ordinated county-wide program of health instruction from kindergarten through grade 14 based upon extensive studies of student and community needs and interests.
- Calling All Parents.* Chicago 10: Bureau of Health Education, American Medical Assn. 1950. A pictorial and popular baby guide.
- Citizens Look at Our Schoolhouses.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1951. 20 pp. 15c. Traces the inadequate plant situation of today prior to the "War-induced crisis" and points to the task ahead.
- Civil Defense Plans for School Systems.* Washington 6, D. C.: NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1951. 12 pp. A review of plans and practices from several school systems.
- Conditions Necessary for Effective Price-Wage Controls.* New York 22: Committee for Economic Development, 444 Madison Ave. 8 pp. Four fundamental steps for stabilizing the economy of the nation.
- Conservation in the Schools.* Laramie, Wyo.: The National Committee on Policies in Conservation Education, 1409 Garfield St., John W. Scott, Chairman. 1950. 14 pp. Ways and means by which administrators, supervisors, and teachers can introduce the teaching of conservation into schools. A report of the Lake Villa, Illinois, workshop in May, 1950.
- Conant, J. B. *The Present Danger.* Washington 5, D. C.: Com. on the Present Danger, 711 14th St., N. W. A radio address on the danger of militarization.
- Council Publications.* New York 27: Metropolitan School Study Council, 525 W. 120th St. 1951. 5 pp. A mimeographed list of printed materials and films issued by the company.
- CROSBY, A. L. *Your Blood Pressure and Your Arteries.* New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 22 E. 38th St. 1951. 32 pp. 20c. The tensions of our time will take their toll of our leadership unless the people under pressure take certain

precautions, declares Dr. Howard B. Sprague, President of the American Heart Association, in the introduction.

The Curriculum in Action. Dallas, Texas: Asst. Supt. in Charge of Instr., Dallas, Ind. Sch. Dist. 1951. 14 pp. A statement of curriculum organization, stressing the concept of the broad fields curriculum.

Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin. Austin Texas: National Headquarters, 1309 Brazos St. Winter, 1951. Subscription, \$1.00 per year; single issue, 25c. Largely an international issue, emphasizing intercultural understanding in the community as well as abroad.

Economic Co-operation Administration, 800 Connecticut Ave., N. W., Washington 25, D. C., Publications of.

The Marshall Plan — A Program of Economic Co-operation. 63 pp. A study guide.

Marshall Plan News. 16 pp. Our new Far Eastern responsibility.

Educational and Cultural Activities in Germany Today. Washington 25, D.C.: Division of Public Liaison, Office of Public Affairs, Dept. of State. Contains selected articles from the 1950 issues of the *Information Bulletin* of the Office of U. S. High Commissioner for Germany, dealing with educational, cultural, and reorientation activities. Compiled especially for the Second Conference on Occupied Countries in Washington.

The English Record. Hamilton, New York: Colgate University. Published by the New York State English Council. Fall, 1950. 40 pp. 25c. Contains an address entitled "Where Are We At?" by Robert C. Pooley, an address by Archibald MacLeish on "The Function of Poetry," panel discussions, reports, and plans.

Everyman's United Nations. New York 27: Columbia University Press. 1950. \$1.25. A ready reference to the structure, functions, and work of the UN and its related agencies.

FEATHERSTONE, W. B. *Teaching the Slow Learner*. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ. 1951 (Rev. Hollis L. Caswell, Ed.). 118 pp. 43c. How to identify and place the slow learner; how to organize for teaching the slow learner; how to guide the activities, teach fundamental processes, and help the slow learner with personal problems; how to provide for their learning in the junior and senior high school.

Fifth Quarterly Report on Germany. New York: Policy Reports Secretary, OES, HICOG, APO 757-A, c/o Postmaster. 1951. 125 pp. A report on the internal and international problems and progress of Germany during the last quarter of 1950. Deals with such things as the economic aspects of defense, the assimilation of displaced populations, interzonal trade. Contains a graphic annex on employment, wages, prices; a documentary appendix of Soviet notes, North Atlantic Pact communications, etc.

Fiftieth Anniversary Conference on Admission to American Colleges. New York 27: College Entrance Examination Board, 425 W. 117th St. Feb. 1951. 20 pp. Discussions concerning admissions progress and problems.

Fifty Teachers to a Classroom. New York 11: The Macmillan Co. 1950. 44 pp. A study of human resources to tap in the community for classroom use.

The Fiscal Impact of Federal Real Estate. Washington 6, D. C.: NEA. 1951. 22 pp. How Federal ownership causes problems for schools in eleven Western states.

GENSTEIN, E. S. *We Can Stop Inflation*. Newark 2, New Jersey: Kem Products Co. 1951. 23 pp. A plan to halt inflation.

HERRON, L. W. *Economics Is an Art*. Potsdam, New York: Clarkson College of Technology, Dean of the Faculty. 17 pp. The semantics and the dangers of the science of economics.

- HOWARD, J. T. *Improving Economic Understanding in the Public Schools*. New York 3: Joint Council on Economic Education, New York Univ., 32 Washington concerning our economic system and its relation to the American way of life.
- Illinois Association of Teachers of English, 121 Lincoln Hall, Urbana, Illinois, Publications of:
- A Unit on Radio Appreciation*. (Illinois English Bulletin). Dec. 1950. 23 pp. 25c.
- Some of the Best Illinois High School Poetry of 1950*. (Illinois English Bulletin). Jan. 1951. 32 pp. 25c.
- Improving Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools*. Sacramento, Calif.: State Dept. Place. 1951. 20 pp. A description of the movement to educate the citizenry of Educ. Dec. 1950. 65 pp. A guide for appraising or organizing a guidance program.
- International Documents Service, Columbia Univ. Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, New York, Publications of:
- How to Find Out About the United Nations*. June, 1950. 51 pp. 15c. Materials available and where to get them.
- A Korea Chronology*. Oct. 1950. 11 pp.
- Provisional Agenda for Economic and Social Council*. Feb. 1951. 11 pp.
- The Road to Peace* by Trygve Lie. Nov. 1950. 12 pp.
- The United Nations Approach to Peace and Progress* by Trygve Lie. Aug. 15, 1950. 10 pp.
- The Marshall Plan*. Washington 25, D. C.: Advisory Committee on Education, Economic Co-operation Administration, 1951. 63 pp. A thorough explanation of the Marshall Plan prepared especially for school use by the National Council for Social Studies of the NEA. Contains a Study Guide of provocative discussion questions and audio-visual resource materials.
- Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth, FSA, 4th and Independence Ave., S. W., Washington 25, D. C., Publications of:
- Report on State and Local Action*. 75c.
- Report on Youth, National Organizations and Federal Government*. 75c.
- Chart Book*. Graphic presentation of social and economic facts important in lives of children and youth. \$1.00.
- Final Conference Recommendations and Pledge to Children*. Single copies free; two or more copies, 10c each.
- Conference Proceedings*. Available this spring.
- Fact Finding Report*. Originally issued only for the use of delegates at the time of the Conference meetings. Plans are now being made for publication of both the digest and the full text of the report. Delegates and others who have requested copies will be notified of the date of publication and the cost.
- National Society for Art Education, Leicester, England: W. M. Whitehead, 89 London Road. Feb. 1951. 37 pp. Two shillings. Contents: "Controversies in Art Education"; "Museums, Art Schools, and Industrial Design"; "Industrial Design"; and "Problems of Taste."
- National Student Association, 304 N. Park St., Madison 5, Wis., Publications of:
- Third Annual NSA Congress Report*. 1950. 48 pp. 50c.
- Work, Study, Travel Abroad in 1951*. 1951. 50c.
- The New American Webster Dictionary*. New York 22: The New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1951. 412 pp. A handy-sized lexicon of essential words, with gazetteer, foreign words and phrases, abbreviations, illustrations.
- Newsweek, Club and Educational Bureaus, 152 W. 42nd St., New York 18, New York, Publications of:

- Platform*. Monthly discussion guide distributed without cost to a limited number of club officers, educators, speakers, and civic leaders. Additional or individual subscriptions, nine issues, \$1.00; per copy, 25c.
- "Dilemma in Germany." Nov. 1950.
- "What Role for Modern Woman?" Dec. 1950.
- "Can We Win the Battle Against Inflation?" Jan. 1951.
- Occupations in Davenport*. Davenport, Iowa: Davenport Public Schools, Counseling Dept. 1951. 76 pp. This book is the outgrowth of the efforts of sophomore counselors to provide a textbook for the tenth-grade course in orientation. By using community resources, Mr. Kenyon, who edited the book, was able to make a close tie-up between the community and our curriculum. Revisions are planned every four years, and we want to plan now for the future.
- ODEGAARD, C. E. *Toward the Conquest of Fear*. Washington, D. C.: American Council of Learned Societies, 1219 Sixteenth St. N. W. 13 pp. The annual report of the Council's efforts—notably the work of committees on translations and other means of tearing down the walls of ignorance around nations and the barriers between nations.
- Older Youth Project—A Work-Learn Program for Older Youth*. Lansing: Mich. Dept. of Pub. Instr. 1951. 11 pp. A demonstration research project to find a plan of community education for youth not in school and not employed or for those in school for whom the regular academic program has little appeal.
- The Palmer Co., 370 Atlantic Ave., Boston 10, Publications of:
A Catalog of Helpful Educational Material.
Eaton-Palmer Workbook in Basic Spelling. 40 pp. 40c.
The Junior Precis Practice Pad. 53 pp. 75c.
The Senior Precis Practice Pad. 55 exercises. 75c.
- Platform Recommendations and Pledge to Children*. Raleigh, N. C.: Health Publications Institute, Inc., 216 N. Dawson St. 1950. 15 pp. On the Midcentury White-House Conference on Children and Youth.
- Public-School Retirement at the Half Century*. Washington 6, D. C.: NEA, 1201 16th St. N. W., Dec. 1950. 58 pp. 50c. Research data concerning provisions, reciprocity, qualifications, benefits, support, and administration of 72 retirement systems. One section on future prospects in view of the broadened Social Security Plan.
- Reading in Home Economics? Certainly!* Denver: Board of Educ. 1950. What home economics teachers can do about reading.
- A Report of the National Conference on Community School Camping*. Lansing, Mich.: State Dept. of Pub. Instr. 1950. 26 pp. Leadership activities for outdoor education.
- Report of the Seventh Annual Conference*. Oxford, England: J. H. Brookes, Assn. of Art Institutions. 1951. 48 pp. Proceedings of the Liverpool Conference, including addresses: "Festival of Britain and Its Importance to Design Standards"; "Talking About Art"; "Art and UNESCO."
- Research Studies in Kentucky Education*. Lexington: Univ. of Kentucky, Bureau of School Service, Dec. 1950. 43 pp. 50c. Contains: An Analysis of Supervised Student Teaching in Kentucky; The Work of the Council on Public Higher Education in Kentucky; Adult Education in Kentucky.
- Resumé of the Proceedings of the Seventeenth National Conference on Labor Legislation*. (Bulletin No. 141). Washington 25, D. C.: Director, Bureau of Labor Standards, U. S. Dept. of Labor. 59 pp. Free. Meeting to review common problems in labor legislation and administration, Governors' representatives from 39 states, the District of Columbia, Alaska, and Puerto Rico, gathered in Washington, D. C., on November 29, 30, and December 1, 1950, at the invitation of Secretary of Labor Maurice J. Tobin. Results of the deliberations at this Sev-

enteenth National Conference on Labor Legislation, at which manpower for defense production was the theme, are given in the resumé of its proceedings issued recently by the Labor Department's Bureau of Labor Standards.

Safe Use of Electrical Equipment. Washington 6, D. C.: NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1951. 35 pp. Single copy, 50c; 2-9 copies, 10% discount; 10-99, 25%; 100 or more, 33 1/3%. Hazards and safeguards in domestic appliances, with teaching aids.

School Plant Maintenance. Washington 6, D. C.: Amer. Assn. of Sch. Admin., NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1951. 24 pp. 25c. Principles and procedures, simply stated, to aid administrators in properly operating the school plant.

School Savings Journal for Classroom Teachers. Washington 25, D. C.: Treasury Dept., U. S. Savings Bonds Division. Spring 1951. Features the important and timely subject of conservation and ties the thought with school savings. Describes school savings activities in various schools. Has a lift-out poster for classroom use on the conservation theme.

Science Research Associates, 228 S. Wabash Ave., Chicago 4, Publications of:

How to Write Better by Rudolph Flesch. 1951. 48 pp. 40c each; 3 for \$1.00.

Self-understanding by W. C. Menninger. 1951. 48 pp. 40c each; 3 for \$1.00.

Emotional Problems of Growing Up by O. Spurgeon English and Stuart M. Finch (Better Living Series). 48 pp., 40c each; 3 for \$1.00

Your Heredity by Bernice L. Neugarten (Life Adjustment Series). 40c each; 3 for \$1.00.

Scott, Foresman and Company, 433 E. Erie St., Chicago 11, Publications of:

Grade 9

Good Times Through Literature (America Reads 1). \$3.20.

Guidebook for *Good Times Through Literature* (free on introductory orders).

Pupils' Edition, *Think-It-Through Book 1*. 64c.

Teacher's Edition, *Think-It-Through Book 1* (in preparation). 64c. Grade 10 (in preparation for spring)

Exploring Life Through Literature (America Reads 2). \$3.36.

Guidebook for *Exploring Life Through Literature* (free on introductory orders)

Pupils' Edition, *Think-It-Through Book 2*. 64c.

Teacher's Edition, *Think-It-Through Book 2*. 64c.

SCOTT, F. D., and BOLLES, BLAIR. *Scandinavia Today*. New York 18: Foreign Policy Assn., 22 E. 38th St. Headline Series, No. 85. January-February 1951. 64 pp. 35c. The position of Scandinavian countries in world affairs today.

SEAGERS, P. W. *Visual Environment for Schoolrooms*. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana Univ. Book-store, May, 1950. 64 pp. 75c. Also contains the Proceedings of the Indiana Illumination Conference.

Semi-Annual Report of Statewide Activities Supporting the Reorientation Program in Japan and the Ryukyu Islands. Washington 25, D. C.: Reorientation Branch, Office for Occupied Areas, Secretary of the Army. 1951. 26 pp. The six parts cover interchange of persons, motion pictures, radio news and periodicals, publications, cultural materials, and the procurement of supplies and equipment.

Some of the Best Illinois High School Prose of 1950. Urbana, Ill.: Ill. Eng. Bln., 121 Lincoln Hall. 35 pp. 25c; 20c, ten or more. Selected by J. N. Hook. Trend of content analyzed briefly.

State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida, Publications of:

The Stork, the New Resident, and Florida Schools.

Supervision.

Reports to the people on their schools and school needs.

SMALLWOOD, M. E. *A Living Biological Laboratory*. Chicago 10: W. M. Welch Mfg. Co. 1950. 20 pp. Free. Detailed description of the gradual development of a biological laboratory for a small-town school.

- SMITH, A. K. *Adoption Laws in Latin America*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1950. 34 pp. 15c. Pertinent laws are translated and assembled in summary.
- Studies in Education* (Thesis Abstract Series). Bloomington, Ind.: Ind. Univ. Bookstore. Jan. 1951. 138 pp. \$1.00. Abstracts of doctoral theses in the School of Education during 1950.
- Study Abroad UNESCO*. New York 27: Columbia Univ. Press, 1951. 308 pp. \$1.25. A handbook of international fellowships, scholarships, and educational exchange.
- Talking Over Problems of School Plant Planning*. Madison 6, Wisconsin: LeRoy Peterson, School of Educ., Univ. of Wisconsin, 1950. \$1.00. A report of the Institute on School Buildings, held on the campus of the University of Wisconsin during August 1950, which brought into focus a variety of problems related to the modern school plant. Topics included in the report cover such fields as evaluation of school plant planning procedures; selection of the school architect; school site; planning and design of educational spaces; and cost factors in school construction.
- Teacher Supply and Demand in Wyoming*. Laramie: Bureau of Educational Research and Service, Univ. of Wyo. 1951. 39 pp. 25c. Textual and tabulated data concerning sources and provisions for the supply of qualified teachers in the state.
- Teaching Load in 1950*. Washington 6, D. C.: NEA, Research Div., 1201 16th St., N.W. Feb. 1951. 52 pp. 50c. An analysis of prevailing teaching assignments and time schedules and of factors relating to teaching load. Includes recommendations to principals and associations for improving the teacher-load situation.
- Telling America's Story Abroad*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1951. 28 pp. 15c. The State Department's Information and Educational Exchange Program.
- Tenth Report to Congress of the Economic Co-operation Administration*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1951. 147 pp. 40c. Chapter headings: Military Preparedness and European Recovery, ECA Programs for Europe, Special Programs Affecting the U. S., Far Eastern Aid Programs. Statistical sections.
- They Work While You Play*. Washington 25, D. C.: Director, Bureau of Labor Standards, U. S. Dept. of Labor. 1951. One copy free. Quantities may be purchased from the Supt. of Doc. at 15c each. There are nearly 200,000 young workers under 18—nearly 80,000 under 16—employed in the varied kinds of industries furnishing public amusement. That is child labor if it gives him too little time for study, sleep, and play. Because of the local nature of their employment, few children who work in amusement industries are covered by Federal child-labor legislation. Provides facts concerning the extent and type of young workers' employment, their working conditions, and a summary of the state child-labor standards and their administration.
- Today's Schools—Are They as Good as Yesterday's?* Chicago: General Supt. of Pub. Schools. 1951. 24 pp. A popular version of explanation to curb common criticisms against today's schools.
- Vocational Curriculums in California State Colleges*. Sacramento: State Dept. of Educ. Jan. 1951. 40 pp. Reports investigations of several vocational curriculums now in operation.
- Vocational Education in Minnesota*. Minneapolis: Commission on Vocational Education, State Dept. of Educ. 1951. 20 pp. The role and interrelationships of vocational education in the total educational program. A study of needs and resources for gearing education to life.
- WALKER, L. S., and HAWKINS, G. E. *Self-Help Algebra Workbook*. Chicago 11: Scott, Foresman and Co. 1950. 80 pp. 80c. Contains 33 standardized, mixed drills—two preliminary and one final on arithmetic, the remainder on algebra—and five self-help study units. Accompanying Teacher's Guidebook and Answer Key free with Workbook.

- Who Says So?* Cambridge, Mass.: Civic Education Project, 10 Craigie St. 1951. 62 pp. How a group of senior high-school students learned about and used public opinion.
- Why Don't They Think?* Cambridge, Mass.: Civic Education Project, 10 Craigie St. 88 pp. Suggestions to teachers for pupil activities, in school and out, in the field of civic education.
- WOLFE, A. G. *Teen-Agers Look at Their Town*. New York 16: Div. of Youth Services, American Jewish Committee, 386 Fourth Ave. 23 pp. 10c. A leader's guide for conducting a community program.
- Woodworking Machinery*. Washington 25, D. C.: Bureau of Labor Standards, U. S. Dept. of Labor. 1950. 28 pp. and chart. A comparison of state safety codes.
- World Organization of the Teaching Profession, 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Publications of.
- WOTP News*. Jan. 1951. 35 pp. Activities of affiliated members.
- WOTP Proceedings*. 1950. 83 pp. Of the Fourth Delegate Assembly in Ottawa, Canada, July 17-23, 1950.
- Youth Argosy*. Northfield, Mass.: Youth Argosy International Headquarters. 1951. 55 pp. 25c. Detailed plans for group travel during the summer of 1951; specific information concerning work and study opportunities abroad; notes on previous tours.
- The "A-G" Program*. New York 10: Teachers Guild Associates, 2 E. 23rd St. 1951. 45 pp. A report of an experiment in secondary education being conducted in a number of New York City's public high schools. It consists of two parts, a record of actual observations of the slow-learners program made by thirty visitors and a series of recommendations to strengthen and expand the program.

PRINCIPAL AND TEACHER TURNOVER IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.—Mrs. Juanita Lee Wilson reports in the March, 1950, issue of the *Oregon Education Journal* that, of the 3147 secondary-school principals and teachers teaching in the public schools of Oregon during the school year 1949-50, 26 per cent were new to the school systems; 20 per cent had them there for one year; 12 per cent, for two years; 9 per cent, for three years; 6 per cent, for four years; 4 per cent, for five years; 8 per cent, for six to ten years; 6 per cent, for 21-30 years; and 7 per cent, for 31-50 years.

CAMPING EDUCATION.—Lee M. Thurston, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Lansing, Michigan, discusses "Michigan High Schools and Their Camping Activities" in the February, 1951, issue (pp. 56-61) of the *High School Journal* (published by the School of Education, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, at a subscription rate of \$2.00 per year—copies monthly, October to May, inclusive). In relation to financing such a program, he states: "Camping education is finding its support in regular tax channels. The following policies have found favor in the Michigan program: (1) The family should assume the cost of food of students while at camp, the same as when they are in school. (2) The boards of education should assume the cost of instruction, as always has been done in public education. In camping, as in other aspects of the school program, the board of education should fulfill its duty to provide instruction for youth. (3) For those families that are unable financially to assume the cost of food for children at camp, the social agency that normally takes care of them at home should assume the responsibility at camp. Frequently, local service clubs and organizations that are interested in the camping program provide funds so that no boy or girl will be denied a camping experience because of financial reasons. (4) Camps and other facilities should be provided by the school district or other governmental units such as the state or county. Inasmuch as the camp is considered part of the school plant, the board of education should assume the cost of making facilities available for the camping program."

News Notes

EDUCATORS WARNED TO BE ON GUARD AGAINST FORCES SEEKING TO UNDERMINE AMERICA'S SCHOOLS.—Free public schools are the most fundamental, unifying, constructive force in a democracy, but teachers must constantly resist forces here and abroad seeking to undermine America's educational system. This warning was given at the final session of the Sixth Annual Meeting of Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development of the NEA as 1800 members adopted a program of action aimed at safeguarding the freedom of the nation's schools. The need for a high priority for school building materials, supplies, and equipment headed the resolutions adopted by the membership. Other resolutions urged that every effort be made to keep specially trained personnel in the public schools during this international crisis and that a program of Federal aid for public schools be adopted by Congress as early as possible. Such aid should be channeled through existing state departments of education without Federal control.

NEW MAGAZINE OF AMERICAN HISTORY.—Have you seen that new and colorful magazine of American history—*American Heritage*? If you haven't write for a sample copy. *American Heritage* is now in its second year of publication. The American Institute of Graphic Arts in its Magazine Show for 1950 selected it as one of the outstanding magazines of the year. It contains a variety of articles on America's past with emphasis upon our great heritage of local and regional history. It roams the nation and combines words and pictures in a lively and intelligent partnership which interests the youngest students in the classroom. A column on "Seeing and Hearing History" by Dr. William Tyrrell of Columbia University gives you in every issue the latest news and information on motion pictures, recordings, filmstrips, and other audio-visual-aid materials in the social studies field. The Heritage Bookshelf by Dr. Ralph Adams Brown of Cortland (New York) State Teachers College gives an equally lively view of the new books. Special supplements are issued from time to time for certain issues with excellent suggestions on how to make use of *American Heritage* in the classroom. A manual for teachers on the permanent uses of the magazine is under preparation. For full particulars write to American Heritage, American Association for State and Local History, Box 969, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

THE SLOW LEARNER.—The November, 1950, issue, pp. 20-54, of *High Points* contains an excellent detailed description of the "XG Program," which has been in existence in the Walton High School of New York City (girls school) for over ten years. It is a special or general course tailored to meet the needs of slow learners—those pupils with IQ's of 90 or below. Flexibility is maintained so that pupils can be moved in or out of the general course freely as seems desirable. A course of study has been worked out for eight terms, but it is constantly being modified in light of new experience or fresh inspiration.

THE CARNEGIE UNIT.—Research in fields of learning and retention of knowledge has placed emphasis on capacity, attitude, and ability on the part of the learner. The records of veterans in most of our colleges demonstrated that success in college was dependent on attitude, competence, and aptitude rather than on the number of credits earned in the secondary schools. Admission by the colleges of students recommended by secondary-school faculties as competent to pursue the selected work may serve to improve the secondary-school program. In the first place it would shift the emphasis to quality work, thus influencing secondary-school administrators and teachers to employ instruments and methods to determine competence. Admission upon recommendation of competence would free the secondary schools from requirements of time involved in the Carnegie Unit. It would permit students to adjust the time spent in achieving desired goals and outcomes. College admission upon recommendations of compe-

tence would make the articulation between secondary schools and colleges of greater importance. Secondary-school teachers would become increasingly aware of the need for information about college programs and the character of the work. College teachers would be advised or urged to determine what competence is required to succeed in their different departments and schools. Secondary schools and colleges would be brought closer together in their endeavor to determine competence by other than the quantitative method. This closer relationship and mutual effort would result in more study and research about needed changes on both the secondary and the college level. --"Re-evaluating the Use of the Carnegie Unit" by Lawrence E. Vredevoe. The University School of Education *Bulletin*, February 1951.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE SCHOOL BOARD MEMBER.—"The school system in most districts represents the largest business from the standpoint of persons involved, capital invested, and money expended. It affects the lives of children, youth, and adults. The school board has jurisdiction for carrying out the state requirements for education and developing a program to meet the needs of all children and youth of school age. An increasing number of school boards are extending the educational program to meet the needs of the pre-school and post-school groups as well. Every adult has a vital interest in the school system of the district. He is affected in one way or another by the economic, social, and educational aspects of the program. Every citizen is a paying customer through direct or indirect taxation. Every child of school age comes under the legal authority of the local school board. Every parent is a partner in the local school system. The school board member represents a big business in the community—one of the biggest and most important."—From an address given by Lawrence E. Vredevoe, Director of the Bureau of School Services, University of Michigan, before the Michigan Association of School Boards.

TELEVISION.—"I believe that 75 per cent of these 2,000 new television channels soon to be allotted are sufficient for commercial stations. Setting aside the remaining 25 per cent would insure the educators of some 500 television stations for their exclusive noncommercial and educational use. There is no conflict here between the two services. Educational television broadcasting can exist side by side with the commercial TV stations. (There is no reason why the building of more schools should interfere with the construction of more theatres. Yet, few parents today would want to send their children to the movies for six hours a day.) These educational stations would insure one of the basic precepts of American Democracy, namely, freedom of choice to listen. There is today no choice between commercial and educational programs."—From an address given by Frienda B. Hennock, Commissioner of the Federal Communications Commission before the Women's National Democratic Club of Washington, D.C.

AND THE JOB HAS JUST BEGUN. Children and youth overseas are anxious to learn of our way of life and thought. Requests from abroad are for picture books. They are wanted by all ages because their language is universal and the text is easily understood. A growing number of adolescents abroad are learning the English language. They are grateful for the opportunity to receive books to further their studies and at the same time serve as interpretations of the United States. Now, through the CARE-UNESCO Children's Book Fund, it is possible to respond to these needs by sending carefully selected American children's books to institutions overseas which serve children. The enclosed folder and release tells the story in greater detail. Yes, the job has just begun—this program, supplementing the regular CARE-UNESCO Book Fund, which sends scientific and technical books overseas, is a new plan and needs your support. Contributions in any amount sent to the Children's Book Fund, CARE, 20 Broad Street, New York 5, New York, or local CARE offices, are applied toward package units for two types of Book Shelf: A series of 34 picture books for young children, or a collection of 33 books written

for older boys and girls who are learning English as a second language. Each Shelf is packaged in five units priced at \$10 each, or \$50 for a complete Shelf.

COMMUNITY HELPS INDUCE NEW TEACHERS.—With community competing against community for the limited supply of new teachers, alert school systems will give increasing attention to induction programs. At Portland, Oregon, welcoming of new teachers has developed into a community project. Business firms, transportation companies, PTA, League of Women Voters, American Association of University Women, civic and theater groups see that new teachers, their wives and husbands enjoy a series of parties, sightseeing tours. Even the chamber of commerce of nearby Mt. Hood gets into the act by furnishing a lunch when teachers tour the Mt. Hood loop.—*Trends*.

MODEL BOARDING SCHOOL IN KFAR SABA, ISRAEL.—In September, 1951, a co-educational boarding school will be established in Israel for high-school students from English-speaking countries. This project will enable parents to send their children to Israel for a period of one to two years without any loss of school time, as the curriculum will include all the subjects required in the schools of their respective countries. Credit for subjects studied in Israel will be accorded through normal procedures of evaluation under regulations of the State Department of Education at Albany. The curriculum will also include the teaching of the Hebrew language and literature, the Bible, and Jewish history and culture.

The students will visit all parts of the country and become acquainted with its life and culture. They will have the opportunity of meeting and hearing many of the outstanding men and women of Israel. They will learn the songs and picturesque dances of the country. They will live in their own little community and participate in its management and development. They will engage in sports and till their own garden and orchard. The bringing together of American, Canadian, English, and Israeli boys and girls will obviously lead to an awareness and appreciation of the life and problems of all these countries and to the cultivation of lasting friendships. A special diet and expert medical care will be provided for the students. The school is situated near the Katznelson Institute of Social and Political Science, and is surrounded by beautiful citrus groves. It will conduct its education activities in conjunction with the administration and staff of the Institute, under the direction of Mr. Aron Horowitz, who has headed educational institutions in Israel and the United States.

The cost of an academic year's study will be \$1,800. This sum includes boat transportation to and from Israel; maintenance and tuition fees; tours of the country; lecture, theater, and concert performances, etc. The low cost of the program is made possible through the generous efforts of the Katznelson Institute. Those students interested in applying for admission to the Boarding School should contact their principal, or write directly to the American Friends of the Katznelson Institute, 1140 Broadway, Room 607, New York 1, New York.

ART REFERENCE COLLECTION.—Three teachers, a parent, and six secondary-school pupils last summer made block prints for the printing of sixty-four new wall hangings and other materials for the art reference collection maintained by the Denver, Colorado, Public School system for use as classroom aids to instruction or as wall hangings in the classroom.

COUNSELORS AT 562 NORTH CAROLINA SCHOOLS.—North Carolina public schools have increased the provisions for guidance services since the inauguration of the program July 1, 1939, on the state level with the employment of a State Supervisor of Occupational Information and Guidance. There were 562 high schools in 1949-50 with 867 persons who gave some scheduled time to counseling. The promotion and supervision of guidance services among the schools is a part of the state's program of vocational education. Federal and state funds are used to support the program on the state level. No remuneration is made to the local units in the devel-

opment of guidance services, as is the practice in the case of other phases of the vocational education program. Nor does this service apply to a particular or special group of students.

The guidance program comprises a set of resource services aimed at facilitating the school's attempt to achieve the purposes of education and which meet the special needs of individual pupils not otherwise provided. They include: (1) individual inventory, (2) occupational and educational information, (3) counseling, (4) follow-up and placement, and (5) research and evaluation. These services are of direct assistance to the pupil, teacher, and administrator. Some of the more specific services rendered by the state office are the following:

1. Prepare and distribute special bulletins dealing with plans, courses of study, and literature on studies, investigations, and surveys in the field of occupational information and guidance.
2. Aid in initiating a guidance program in schools previously doing little work in this field.
3. Assist in evaluating the program in schools already doing considerable guidance work, and offer suggestions for expansion.
4. Meet upon invitation with educational or civic groups for the purpose of discussing general problems and phases of guidance.
5. Co-operate with other agencies interested in the broad aspects of various youth problems, such as the State and National Vocational Guidance Associations, civic clubs, employer and labor groups, the Occupational Information and Guidance Service in the United States Office of Education, and the North Carolina Education Association.
6. Promote the training of teacher counselors in occupational information and guidance and advise with teacher trainers on all matters pertaining to the improvement of the program in the state.
7. Conduct, in co-operation with local authorities, group conferences for the purpose of improving local programs of guidance.
8. Answer by correspondence requests from schools and other interested agencies for sources of occupational and guidance information.

DO YOU KNOW THAT.—Although 80 per cent of American youth of high-school age are in school, only 50 per cent are graduated? . . . One half the money spent for recreation in 1940 went for movies, radio, and spectator sports? . . . Fifty per cent of adults read only sports pages and comic strips? . . . Important state contests are decided by twenty to eighty per cent of voters. School board elections are frequently decided by a handful of voters? . . . Fifty per cent of children born in any year quit school before high-school graduation? . . . Ninety per cent of our youth have the ability to graduate from high school? . . . Fifty per cent have the ability to profit from at least two years of education beyond high school? . . . About one half of the draftees of World War II had some disqualifying defect? . . . The most common age of persons arrested for breaking laws is 18-21? These are facts from the booklet *Good Schools Don't Just Happen*. Single copies of the bulletin are ten cents and are obtainable from Science Research Associates, 228 S. Wabash Avenue, Chicago 4, Illinois.

TEACHING PSYCHOLOGY TO JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL YOUTH.—The Metropolitan School Study Council, 525 West 120th Street, New York 27, New York, has started a series of filmstrips entitled *What Would You Do If?* The newest in that series is "One Day with Billy." This filmstrip is designed to be used both with adults and with youth of the upper elementary and junior high-school grades as well as child-care classes. It is a stimulative device for discussion and role-playing that should lead to a deeper understanding of the psychological tie between rejection and aggressive behavior response. Parents, teachers, and others who have frequent contact with youngsters need no introduction to the child who suddenly hits out at his fellows. What to do about it? This filmstrip will help the adult to restrain his al-

most reflexive tendency to punish the aggressor in favor of getting at the causes of the flare-up. It will make the adult alert to situations that may lead to overt aggression in time to prevent outbursts. Youth, too, can be taught some of the basic truths of human behavior. Youngsters can be taught to understand themselves and their fellows and to follow paths that will generally improve human relations in their own worlds. This filmstrip is a teaching aid for such an end. This filmstrip is priced at \$6.00 per copy.

HUMAN INTEREST TRAVEL.—In its past history, tourism has plodded along the old familiar paths looking neither to right nor left for fresh inspiration but keeping to the well-beaten track. Now, however, a new avenue of approach to the travel market has opened up with people evidencing a distaste for the old routine of monuments and museums and a strong interest in educational Human Interest Travel. In keeping with this new movement, the Travel Development Section of ECA has compiled a series of itineraries throughout the ERP countries which, among others, enable the American architect, archaeologist, doctor, craftsman, and other members of the professional classes to meet and discuss with his European counterpart ideas of particular interest in his field of work, and to gain an insight into the day-by-day working life and culture of the citizens of another country. A 100-page booklet on Human Interest Travel describing these tours may be secured free by writing the Travel Development Section E.C.A./O.S.R., 2 Rue Saint-Florentin, Paris, France.

PUBLIC SCHOOL STATISTICS.—The Department of Research of the Washington, D. C., Public Schools, through the office of the Statistician, Boise L. Bristol, has prepared some interesting statistics about the pupils in the public schools of the District. Of those pupils at the secondary-school level numbering a total of 34,233, this study reveals that 22,254 were born in the District of Columbia; 11,479, in other parts of the United States; 500 in foreign countries. Likewise, a study of the age-grade placement of the pupils showed that of those in the senior high-school level, 12.2 per cent were under age; 58.9 per cent, normal age; and 28.9 per cent over age; and of those in the junior high-school level, nine per cent were under age; 54.7 per cent normal age; and 36.3, over age.

NEW CORONET FILMS.—Six new 16-mm. sound motion pictures by Coronet Films, 65 East South Water, Chicago 1, Illinois, are available to schools. A brief description and related film facts on each of these new motion pictures follows. Prices shown are subject to revision.

Food That Builds Good Health (1 reel, sound, color (\$90) or B & W (\$45); Intermediate, Junior High, Adult.) Shows relationship of good health to the foods we eat and what foods our bodies need.

Do Better on Your Examinations (1 reel, sound, color (\$90) or B & W (\$45); Junior High, Senior High, College, Adult.) Four basic rules that students can follow to do better on their examinations are demonstrated.

Going Steady? (1 reel, sound, color (\$90) or B & W (\$45); Junior High, Senior High, Adult.) Emphasizes the points of "going steady." It raises the whole question of going steady in an objective setting.

The Solar System (1 reel, sound, color (\$90) or B & W (\$45); Intermediate, Junior High, Adult.) Names of the planets, their relative size, distances from the sun and the forces at work in the solar system are presented. An actual scale model of the solar system is set up to visualize dramatically the immensity of distances between the respective planets and the sun.

Heredity and Environment (1 reel, sound, color (\$90) or B & W (\$45); Junior High, Senior High, College, Adult.) An overview of cultural inheritances, genetics, environmental influences and their inter-relationships is presented.

Social Courtesy (1 reel, sound, color (\$90) or B & W (\$45); Junior High, Senior High.) Using a unique story development, *Social Courtesy* helps students realize that getting along in social groups is not a tedious process that involves preparation and

a great deal of knowledge, but instead is a natural, easy form of behavior that requires only the use of everyday courtesy.

NEA TRAVEL TOURS.—During the past five years more than 2,000 NEA members have participated in the planned educational tours conducted by the NEA. Again this year many travel itineraries, both in this country and abroad, have been arranged. A descriptive 32-page booklet describing various points of interest that can be included in these itineraries has been released by the Division of Travel Service, National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

SALARIES OF HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS.—The New York State Association of Secondary-School Principals has recently released a 22-page mimeographed publication entitled *Survey of 1950-51 Salaries of High School Principals of New York State*, by Ben F. Ingraham. This study records data regarding current salaries of secondary-school executives in New York and recommends a formula for determining salaries. Some of the findings as reported in this publication are:

1. Most of the city high schools are governed by salary schedules in the yearly determination of salary for the principal. In fact, 49 out of 62, or 79 per cent of the city systems reporting, use a secondary-school principals' salary schedule. It is interesting to note that 38 out of 93 villages reported schedules or formulas for determining salaries in this area, while only 19 of the 137 district superintendents reporting indicated that high schools under their official guidance had set up definite salary schedules for principals.
2. The mean or average salary of senior high-school principals in the cities (except New York) is \$6,333, and the median salary, \$6,300. Eighty-two city high schools on Long Island and in upstate New York reported. These figures might be interpreted to show a \$200 approximate increase over last year's. In New York City, as a result of the passage of the Rabin Law during the last legislative session, all secondary-school principals, both academic and vocational, receive \$13,000. Returns indicate that the Rabin law affected, in the main, principals in the larger cities and the suburban area surrounding New York. The mean or average salary of senior high-school principals in village superintendencies is \$6,155. The median salary for this group is \$6,000. Here, again, can be seen a \$200 rise over last year's figures. The mean or average salary earned by high-school principals, and supervising principals who also serve in the capacity of secondary-school principals in district superintendencies, is \$5,470.
3. The range of all salaries reported is from a high of \$13,000 (\$12,000 outside of New York City) to a low of \$3,000.
4. This survey does not compare salaries of high-school administrators with those of executives in business, industry, and the other professions; but it is apparent from other comparative studies, such as those made by the New York State Teachers' Association, that the high-school principal lags considerably behind his fellow executives in other fields where duties and responsibilities are not greater. The high-school principal is the executive overseer of our most precious resource, American youth.
5. The salary of the supervising principal who also fulfills the duties of a high-school principal shall be two and one half times the salary of the highest paid teacher. The high-school principal's salary shall be twice that of the highest paid teacher provided he assumes no other administrative responsibility.

FOR THE HOME ECONOMICS CLASSES.—*Good Housekeeping* has a large number of Bulletins that are excellent source material for class instruction. These bulletins include a wide range of subjects in home economics, such as, cookbooks, kitchen planning, meal planning, home decorating, needlework, child care, beauty aids, as well as aids on home building. Special discounts of approximately 30 per cent on these various publications are available to teachers, schools, and libraries. For full information, write to *Good Housekeeping Bulletin Service*, 57th Street at 8th Avenue, New York 19, New York.

GUIDANCE PRACTICES THAT WORK.—A free illustrated brochure on SRA's 1951 *Guidance Practices That Work* Contest is now available. Write Science Research Associates, 228 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago 4. First-prize winner receives \$50; runner-up, \$35 and \$25 respectively; honorable mention awards are \$10 each. Anyone connected with a guidance program—teachers, administrators, guidance counselors—may enter. Students, too, are eligible. This contest will close July 1, 1951.

CATALOG OF POWER TOOLS.—A new 12-page two-color catalog has been issued on the Delta-Milwaukee Radial Arm Saws. This new catalog pictures and describes the Delta Radial Arm Saws and their accessories and presents many new woodworking ideas for contractors, industry, woodworking shops, and schools. Some of the 125 different operations that can be done with the Delta Radial Arm Saw are illustrated. The catalog is available free on request from the Delta Power Tool Division, Rockwell Manufacturing Company, Milwaukee 1, Wisconsin. Ask for catalog M-50.

YOUTH SERVICE, INC.—Youth Service a New York State corporation, was established in 1937. It publishes a monthly magazine entitled *Youth Leaders Digest*, a professional journal aimed at leaders in youth work in all types of youth-serving agencies, schools, churches, and other organizations interested in the welfare of youth up to twenty-five years of age. It also publishes a monthly source materials bulletin, *Program Peps*, which lists free and low-cost materials for developing programs. It has published many books and booklets, such as, *Leadership of Youth* (\$3.00); *Juvenile Delinquency—Practical Prevention* (\$1.50); *The Youth Problem in America* (\$1.00); *Mothers of Tomorrow* (\$1.00); *The First Hundred Words Are the Hardest* (\$1.00); *Speeches Made Easy* (\$1.00); *Opportunities in Physical Education, Recreation and Camping* (\$1.00); *The Hiker's Guide* (\$1.00). Other books are in process of preparation. The organization takes no advertising of any kind; it has no official tie-up with any organizations nor does it receive any subsidies from any agency. Yet it enjoys quasi-official co-operation from the heads of the various youth-serving agencies, such as the YMCA, Boy Scouts, 4-H Clubs, etc.

A SUMMER AT THE UNIVERSITY OF OSLO.—The fifth session of the Oslo Summer School for American Students will be held in Oslo, Norway, June 23 to August 4. In connection with this session, there will be held an Institute for English-Speaking Teachers. Special courses in the humanities, social studies, and education will be offered to the latter group, with field trips and excursions to Norway's various educational institutions. Prospective students who will wish to transfer credits from Norway are urged to confer with their faculty adviser or registrar in order to determine in advance, if possible, to what extent the desired courses at the University of Oslo might fit into their American program of studies. In addition to certificate, the University will issue official transcripts of students' records showing number of hours devoted to lectures, laboratory and field work, and results of examinations taken. However, the number of credits which can be transferred for courses taken at Oslo can only be determined by the American college or university to which the student presents his summer school record. The cost of attending the six-week course, including tuition, books, board and lodging, transportation from New York and return will approximate \$600. A number of scholarships are also available. For full particulars write to Mr. Norman Nordstrand, Dean of Academic Administration, St. Olaf College, Northfield, Minnesota.

CURRICULUM MATERIALS LABORATORY.—The University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon, through its Curriculum Materials Laboratory, under the direction of Hugh B. Wood, serves as a regional depository for the Pacific Northwest for educational materials that elementary and high-school teachers can use in the classroom. It maintains an extensive, up-to-date file of "free and inexpensive" instructional aids. This not only serves the hundreds of teachers that use the Laboratory, but also benefits the organizations that have educational, promotional, and advertising materials

for distribution in the public schools. It also prepares bibliographies from time to time to further aid teachers in securing these materials for their own use. It assembles materials (a) that have educational value for pupils and teachers in the public schools, (b) that are in sufficient quantity to supply requests from classroom teachers, and (c) that are "free or inexpensive." Included in this material are pamphlets, circulars, maps, charts, graphs, posters, pictures, exhibits, models, slides, filmstrips, films, records, recordings, catalogues, etc.

The *Curriculum Bulletin*, a project of the School of Education of the University of Oregon, is once again being published and is available on a subscription basis at \$5 per year (approximately 24 issues), or individual issues may be purchased separately. Each issue treats a separate topic—units, bibliographies, study guides, background and resource data on newer methods and curriculums, proposals for new curriculums, etc. In addition other bulletins that will be of special interest to administrators and that may be secured through the Curriculum Laboratory are: Nos. 57, Bibliography of Lists of Instructional Aids to Learning, 50c; 60, Education for Paradise Valley (Ideal Plan), 50c; 62, The Curriculum Plan for the Utopian Schools, 45c; 63, Selecting a Basic Plan of Curriculum Organization, 15c; 71, Fads, Frills, and Fundamentals (Curriculum source materials), 35c; 72, Secondary Education in a Democracy (Source materials), 65c; 73, Teacher Education in Oregon—An Opinion Survey, 25c; 81, In-service Education of Teachers, An Evaluation, 40c; 82, How Are We Doing? (modern vs. traditional), 50c; 74, A Bibliography of General Courses of Study and Guides, 20c.

BRITISH INFORMATION SERVICES FILMS.—British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York, announces the availability of the following 16-mm. sound films:

Daybreak in Udi (45 min.) Tells a unique tale of the building of a maternity home by the initiative and efforts of the natives themselves.

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Trooping the Colour (10 min., Technicolor) One of the oldest and most impressive of military ceremonies, the King's birthday, is held annually on the famous Horse Guards Parade. His Majesty the King, Princess Elizabeth, and the Duke of Gloucester all take part in the ceremony.

CIVIL DEFENSE NEWS.—Those with civil defense responsibilities will find useful a new service, *Civil Defense News*. The publication is a selective summary of ideas and developments in the field, published bi-weekly for local and state CD officials, company executives with CD tasks, industrial plant protection and safety officers, civic leaders active in CD planning, and press and periodical editors. The bulletin includes notes on city and state CD activity around the country; information on CD projects of business, industrial, civic and private groups; and reviews of latest CD publications and useful films. Emphasis is on ideas, techniques, and materials. Content is carefully selected from publications of federal, state, and city CD agencies, newspapers of all large cities, magazines and scientific journals, letters from CD officials, personal interviews with authorities and the files of the Council on Atomic Implications, Inc. Subscriptions may be placed with Civil Defense News, 4238 La Salle Avenue, Los Angeles 62, California, at \$12.00 per year (26 issues) or \$3.00 for 12 weeks (6 issues). Sample copies are available on request.

NEW SUMMER RADIO INSTITUTE.—Barnard College launches its first NBC Summer Radio Institute in New York. The course will begin on June 25 and continue until August 3. It will be held in the NBC studios (New York) with NBC department heads as instructors. Thirty-five students will be admitted to the first institute; both men and women are eligible. The course will provide professional train-

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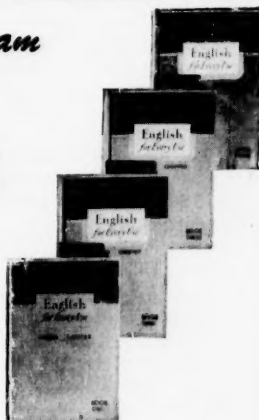
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NEW COLOR FILM AVAILABLE.—International Film Bureau, 6 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago 2, Illinois, announces the release of Norman McLaren's hand-drawn color film *Stars and Stripes* (16 mm., 4 minutes, sale price \$29.75). The credit title of the film carries a musical sound track inscribed directly on film, using a chromatic scale originally conceived by McLaren while doing research for the Guggenheim Museum of Non Objective Art. *Stars and Stripes* takes its name from the Sousa March. The pictures in the film were hand-drawn by McLaren directly on 35-mm. film and prints made from his original.

Already released by International Film Bureau are *Fiddle de Dee* and *Hen Hop*. These two films and *Stars and Stripes* are now being marketed as one package as well as separately. Films in the package are mounted on one reel with *Stars and Stripes* first, *Hen Hop* next, and *Fiddle de Dee* last. Sale price of the package is \$75.

INFORMATION ON THE UN.—The National Education Association has recently announced a new service to schools—that of providing authoritative and timely information on the UN. A bi-weekly newsletter giving firsthand information on the UN and other activities will be provided. It will provide suggestions to teachers and news of audio-visual materials, books, pamphlets, school activities, conferences, coming events, special articles, etc. Examples of successful classroom practices and materials used by schools in the United States and other countries will be provided as curriculum aids. Special services involving replies to inquiries, arrangements to visit the UN, advice in planning conferences, information on teacher exchange, and other assistance will be available to all subscribers. In order to assist in getting this firsthand information, to aid visiting subscribers to the UN, and to serve as a consultant to educators, UN officials, and delegations, a permanent representative will be at the UN. For complete information about this unusual service which every good school should have, write to United Nations Education Service, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

DO YOU MEASURE UP?—Dr. Paul Witty of Northwestern University is the originator and judge of the annual Best Teacher Contest sponsored by Quiz Kids. During the past five years he has studied some 90,000 letters written by children about their teachers. *Time* magazine reports that he found that in the judgment of the students the 12 qualities of a good teacher are: (1) a friendly attitude, (2) consideration for the individual, (3) patience, (4) wide interests, (5) good manners, (6) fairness, (7) sense of humor, (8) good disposition, (9) interest in the individual, (10) flexibility, (11) generosity, (12) skill.—*NEA News*, October 20, 1950.

JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL SURVEY.—The Buffalo, New York, school district is making a survey of its junior high schools. The survey is concerned with the development of the junior high-school program in that city. It is hoped that the survey will reveal the extent to which the Buffalo junior high schools have been successful in developing the elements of a junior high-school program. The research consultants in this survey are studying the finances, buildings, curriculum, extracurricular activities, and many other factors involved in the program of the junior high school.

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STUDENT CONFERENCE ON CITIZENSHIP.—The University of Michigan sponsored a Citizenship Conference and a Cheerleader Clinic on its campus during the present school year. More than 3,000 student council officers and cheerleaders representing 300 secondary schools throughout the state were in attendance. Faculty advisers and others who worked with these youth were impressed with the sincerity with which these youth conducted their discussion sessions. The topics discussed were those pertaining to problems with which these youth are confronted in their different schools.

YOUTH ARGOSY.—If you are interested in travel, then you will want to become familiar with Youth Argosy, Inc., whose international headquarters are in Northfield, Massachusetts. Youth Argosy is an educational, nonprofit, membership organization. It provides low-cost travel with the serious purpose of broadening cultural and spiritual horizons and building friendly relations with young people of all nations, creeds, and races. To become a member of Youth Argosy send \$2 for membership with a letter giving your name, address, and statement of your interest in the objectives of Youth Argosy. This brings you a membership card immediately, a 1951 folder of summer Youth Argosy opportunities, and a year's subscription to the Youth Argosy magazine. All members can obtain steamship or air transportation at regular commercial rate to any part of the world at any time of the year through Youth Argosy by simply making a down payment of \$20 and requesting space desired.

In addition Youth Argosy has introduced a low cost air educational rate for those members who are qualified. The cost is less than half the usual summer air rate to Paris. To obtain this special rate of \$385 round trip during this peak season, send \$20 to Youth Argosy Headquarters in Northfield, Mass., and request a Transportation Application. If your application is approved for the special educational rate, the \$20 is applied to the total passage cost of \$385; otherwise, it is refunded.

COMPARISON OF ENCYCLOPEDIA.—Laurence Hart, 14 West Walnut St., Metuchen, New Jersey, has recently issued his semiannual *Comparisons of Encyclopedias*. In this he gives valuable information and comparisons of 32 encyclopedias including the name, publisher, address, copyright date, number of volumes in the set, total number of pages, price, price per million words, numbers of headings, indexed or not, number of illustrations and maps, ages for which suited, accuracy, strong points of the set, and comments. The information is brief and readily arranged for careful comparison. Copies may be obtained from the above address at 25 cents for one copy and 10 cents for each additional copy. The author also has a similar publication entitled *Comparison of Dictionaries*. This is available at the same prices.

DEVELOPING INTEREST IN MUSIC.—A second poster for schools and youth centers interested in music, titled *Find Your Place*, is being offered without charge by the American Music Conference, 332 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago 4, Illinois. The poster, measuring 22 x 17 inches, shows a school orchestra with a magnifying glass centered on one performer. The effect is to encourage the viewer to join the musical organization in his school. The first poster distributed by AMC, called *Yes You Can*, has been exhibited in more than 37,050 school rooms.

Community School Administrators Schedule Meeting.—The Midwest Drive-In Conference for Community School Administrators will meet in Topeka, Kansas, April 22-24. This conference, sponsored jointly by the American Association of School Administrators, the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, and the National Council of Chief State School Officers, will be attended by superintendents, school board members, and other school officials from the smaller school systems in Kansas, Iowa, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota. The general chairman of the conference is K. O. Esping, superintendent of schools, Council Grove, Kansas.

The Institute on the Position of the United States in World Affairs.—The Seventh Annual Session of the Institute on the Position of the United States in World Affairs

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will be held in Washington, D. C., during the summer of 1951. This Institute is sponsored jointly by The American University and Civic Education Service, both of which are located in the nation's capital. While most of the meetings of the Institute will be held on the campus of The American University, arrangements will be made to hold some meetings in the New State Department building, in the buildings of the Pan American Union, at the National Airport, and in other appropriate places that may be available. The group enrolled in the Institute will spend several days at the headquarters of the United Nations in New York City and at Lake Success. They also will have an opportunity to visit two or three of the embassies of foreign countries in Washington.

The 1951 session of the Institute will start with a buffet supper and informal reception in the late afternoon of Sunday, June 17. An ambassador from another country and certain members of his staff will be the guests of honor at this affair. The regular meetings of the group will begin on Monday, June 18 and will continue for a period of six weeks, ending on July 27.

The American University grants six graduate credits to those students who enroll for the entire six weeks' period of the Institute and who complete the program of work satisfactorily. A few undergraduate students may be enrolled under special circumstances. Auditors are admitted for periods of time shorter than six weeks, but do not earn graduate credit.

The tuition rate for the Institute is \$80.00 for the full period of six weeks. Auditors are admitted at the rate of \$15.00 per week for tuition. These amounts do not include transportation, meals, or rooms. Nor do they cover the additional costs incurred in the trip to the United Nations headquarters. The estimated cost of the trip to U. N. Headquarters, including railroad fare, hotel room, and meals is about \$50.00. The trip is scheduled tentatively for Thursday and Friday, July 12 and 13.

All inquiries, enrollments, and other correspondence concerning the Institute should be addressed to: Dr. Samuel E. Burr, Jr., Director, The Institute on the Position of the United States in World Affairs, The American University, Washington 16, D. C. Early registration is advised, wherever possible, although applicants for admission to the Institute will be accepted up to the opening date, if vacancies remain up to that time. Campus rooms will be assigned in the order that applications are received.

SAVING THE U. S. WAY.—Have you and your pupils seen the Spring 1951 *School Savings Journal for Classroom Teachers*, an advance copy of which is enclosed, featuring the important and timely subject of "Conservation," in which you and your readers will be much interested? The conservation items include an article by Fred M. Packard, executive secretary of the National Parks Association, and endorsement of both conservation and school savings by U. S. Commissioner of Education, Earl J. McGrath. Other articles feature school savings activities in Kansas, Texas, and Wisconsin; Savings Bonds as an investment for old-age retirement income; and a school savings recommendation by Mrs. Wilda Freebern Faust, executive secretary of the Future Teachers of America. The lift-out poster for classroom use follows the conservation theme. It shows an alert young boy, standing before a great power dam, with a Savings Stamp Album in his hand. Caption: "We Practice Conservation Too!" Glossy prints are available for reproduction.

MAGAZINE ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.—The Department of Labor of the Office of the Divisional Inspector of Johannesburg, South Africa, publishes a monthly magazine on vocational guidance. This publication is undertaken with the purpose of helping youth to make a beginning in the choice and planning of a career. It contains 60 pages and is written in both English and Dutch. The magazine is well written and will, without a doubt, achieve its objective: "published in the interest of the boys and girls of South Africa and South West Africa."

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The Annual National Conference of members of the National Association of Student Councils will be held in the Bradford High School, Wellesley, Mass., June 18-21, 1951.

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